



INDONESIA
HUMAN DEVELOPMENT
REPORT 2004

The Economics of Democracy

Financing Human Development in Indonesia



National
Human Development
Report 2004

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Financing Human Development in Indonesia

BPS-Statistics Indonesia
BAPPENAS
UNDP

BPS



National Human Development Report 2004
The Economics of Democracy: Financing Human Development in Indonesia

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Foreword

Indonesia has made critical human development gains in recent years. These include the steady reduction of extreme poverty, improved access to basic services, and the creation of a more equitable society. Central to all these gains has been the development of Indonesia's democracy, where improved public participation in the political process will put more pressure on the public sector to deliver services to all.

Indonesia's Second Human Development Report examines the cost of guaranteeing these rights for every citizen. The Report argues that, in the economics of democracy, public expenditure is the critical driver in delivering basic standards and rights. Understanding these costs, and their benefits, is especially vital to a country that is consolidating its democracy.

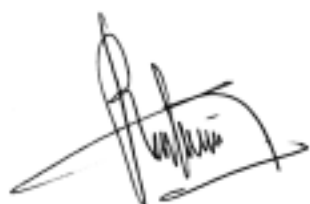
This year's Report estimates that the cost of ensuring Indonesia's basic human development rights would not exceed IDR 50 trillion (USD 5.9 billion) per year, corresponding to 3 to 4 percent of GDP, which would bring Indonesia on par with public social spending in comparable Asian countries. It can be argued that this

budgetary reallocation to guarantee basic standards need not push the state budget into an unsustainable deficit if it is achieved through reprioritizing existing budgets and improving the effectiveness of revenue collection and expenditure.

Yet the response becomes more complicated at the local level. The Report finds that many districts cannot meet the cost of basic social needs, while others are disproportionately compensated for their requirements. Such inequality in social spending exacerbates the country's wide regional variations in resources and human development achievements. The Report argues for a national consensus on sharing the collective responsibility of meeting human development needs and proposes an Indonesian Social Summit to achieve this.

This year's National Human Development Report owes much to the people and institutions whose contributions have considerably enriched its quality and content. We hope that readers will find its coverage and conclusions a compelling addition to the policy debate on human development in Indonesia.

Jakarta, June 2004



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State Minister for Development Planning/
Chairman of BAPPENAS



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The analysis and policy recommendations of this Report do not necessarily reflect the views of BAPPENAS, BPS-Statistics Indonesia or UNDP. The Report was commissioned by BAPPENAS, BPS-Statistics Indonesia and UNDP under project INS/99/002, commonly known as UNSFIR (United Nations Support Facility for Indonesian Recovery). The principal partner and executing agency of this project within the Government of Indonesia is BAPPENAS (National Development Planning Agency). In drafting the Report, UNSFIR collaborated with the Lembaga Penyelidikan Ekonomi dan Masyarakat-Universitas Indonesia (LPEM-UI). Meanwhile, the statistical tables of the indicators and indices in this Report were prepared by BPS-Statistics Indonesia. The present report is the outcome of a series of open consultations which were held both in Jakarta and the regions, involving all segments of the society: government, civil society including the media, academia, and donors.

This Report has been prepared jointly by
the UNSFIR project team, the LPEM-UI and the BPS-Statistics Indonesia

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BPS in collaboration with BAPPENAS and UNDP organized a one-day workshop with a view to obtaining feedback on preliminary data and methodology. In all 115 participants from different government departments, central and regional offices of BPS, universities, provincial agencies for regional development, non-government organizations and donor agencies attended the workshop. They all provided many valuable ideas, and we are deeply grateful to them. (The full list of participants is given in – *technical workshop on human development indicators*).

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Abbreviations

APBD	: <i>Anggaran Pendapatan dan Belanja Daerah</i> - Regional Budget
APBN	: <i>Anggaran Pendapatan dan Belanja Negara</i> - National Budget
ASEAN	: Association of South East Asian Nations
BAPPENAS	: <i>Badan Perencanaan Pembangunan Nasional</i> - National Development Planning Agency
BMI	: Body Mass Index
BKKBN	: <i>Badan Koordinasi Keluarga Berencana Nasional</i> - National Coordinating Board for Family Planning
BPKK	: <i>Badan Pendidikan Kesejahteraan Keluarga</i> - Family Welfare Movement
BPS	: <i>Badan Pusat Statistik</i> - BPS-Statistics Indonesia
BULOG	: <i>Badan Urusan Logistik</i> - National Logistic Agency
CSO	: Civil Society Organizations
DAK	: <i>Dana Alokasi Khusus</i> - Special Allocation Fund
DAU	: <i>Dana Alokasi Umum</i> - General Allocation Fund
DPR	: <i>Dewan Perwakilan Rakyat</i> - National Parliament
DPRD	: <i>Dewan Perwakilan Rakyat Daerah</i> - Regional Parliament
GDI	: Gender-related Development Index
GDP	: Gross Domestic Product
GEM	: Gender Empowerment Measure
GNP	: Gross National Product
GRDP	: Gross Regional Domestic Product
HDI	: Human Development Index
HDR	: Human Development Report
HPI	: Human Poverty Index
IBRA	: Indonesia Bank Restructuring Agency
ILO	: International Labour Organization
Inpres	: <i>Instruksi Presiden</i> - Presidential Instruction
JPS	: <i>Jaring Pengaman Sosial</i> - Social Safety Net Programme
MDG	: Millennium Development Goals
MPR	: <i>Majelis Perwakilan Rakyat</i> - Consultative People's Assembly
MSS	: Minimum Service Standards
NGO	: Non-government Organization
OPK	: <i>Operasi Pasar Khusus</i> - Special Market Operation
POLRI	: <i>Kepolisian Negara Republik Indonesia</i> - National Police
PRSP	: Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
PTIK	: <i>Perguruan Tinggi Ilmu Kepolisian</i> - Police Academy
Puskesmas	: <i>Pusat Kesehatan Masyarakat</i> - Community Health Centre
Sakernas	: <i>Survei Tenaga Kerja Nasional</i> - National Labour Force Survey
SSF	: Social Sector Fund
SSN	: Social Safety Net
Susenas	: <i>Survei Sosial Ekonomi Nasional</i> - National Socio-Economic Survey
TNI	: <i>Tentara Nasional Indonesia</i> - National Army
UNDP	: United Nations Development Programme
UNICEF	: United Nations Children's Fund

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Indonesia

National Human Development Report 2004

Indonesia needs to invest more in human development – not just to fulfil its people’s basic rights but also to lay the foundations for economic growth and to ensure the long-term survival of its democracy. This investment is substantial but clearly affordable. It has to be based, however, on a widespread national consensus that could be fostered through a National Summit for Human Development.

In dismissing the New Order regime Indonesians ultimately rejected a bargain that involved trading freedom for bread; their concept of the good life included not only economic growth but also rights and freedoms. No longer did they want to see tradeoffs between growth and social justice, between good economics and good politics, between the prosperity of the community and the freedom of the individual. Indonesians now expected public policy to be based on the principle that people are not just the means of development but also the ends.

This may seem an abstract and philosophical approach. And since the crisis the government has understandably been preoccupied with other tasks, notably regaining economic momentum. So this hardly seems the occasion to ask for new budgetary expenditures, especially when these are linked to concepts such as human rights. In fact, however, this broader view is also very practical, because Indonesia’s economic recovery will depend not just on economic measures but also on the confidence of both the general public – and investors – in the country’s social and political stability.

Indonesia’s first National Human Development Report (NHDR) set this discussion in train by making the case for a new social contract that laid out a set of core civil and economic rights and entitlements. This 2004 NHDR builds on this analysis by showing just how Indonesia can afford to fulfil these rights. If the 2001 Report focussed on the ‘why’ of human development, this report examines the ‘how’ and the ‘how much’.

The state of human development

The NHDR also tracks Indonesia’s economic and social progress. It shows how Indonesia has continued its faltering recovery from a financial collapse in 1997 that triggered a whole series of upheavals – economic, social and political. This has been reflected in the country’s human development

index (HDI) which fell between 1996 and 1999 and then rose again in 2002. The average HDI value for Indonesia in 2002 is 66, though this masks a considerable variation across the country – ranging from 76 in East Jakarta to 47 in the district of Jayawijaya in Papua.

The increase in the HDI corresponds to improvements in most social indicators. Adult literacy, for example, continues to rise in response to the increase in school enrolment: by 2002, 90% of the population aged 15 or over could read and write. Other indicators have also registered progress. Thus the infant mortality rate continues to come down and child malnutrition has also declined – from 35% in 1996 to 27% in 2002.

Improvements in the HDI have been accompanied by reductions in poverty. Between 1999 and 2002 the proportion of people living in income poverty fell from 23% to 18%. However this ‘headcount’ poverty rate disguises the fact that there is considerable movement in and out of poverty: between one-third and one-half of the population can fall below the poverty line. The data on income poverty also fail to reflect the fact that people can be deprived in many other ways beyond having insufficient income: they may lack education, for example, or be in poor health, or live in an unsafe and insecure environment. These deprivations are better reflected in the human poverty index (HPI). Between 1999 and 2002 the HPI also registered an improvement, though falling by a smaller proportion – from 25.2% to 22.7%.

Indonesia’s level of income poverty may have fallen back to its pre-crisis level, but the rate is still high, and the fact that it has not fallen further is partly because economic growth has been slow. Indonesia is the only crisis-hit country in Asia not to have bounced back to its previous level of growth: while annual economic growth in the early 1990s was typically around 7% or 8%, growth subsequently has only been around 4%. As a result, finding work has become more difficult, with open unemployment in 2002 at 9.1%.

Gender issues

In principle, women in Indonesia have the same rights as men and have certainly made progress in terms of employment: women’s labour force participation rate has been rising, reaching 38% in 2002. In education too, girls have seen an increase in opportunities: at the primary level, boys and girls now enrol in equal numbers, and at the junior secondary level there appear to be more girls than boys. At

the senior secondary level too, young women have made good progress, though they still marginally lag behind young men.

Women's position has also improved in terms of health: in 2002 life expectancy was 68 years for women, compared with 64 years for men. Nevertheless, one aspect of women's health still gives great cause for concern – maternal mortality: around 20,000 women die each year from causes related to childbirth. Woman's overall achievements in human development can be monitored using the gender-related development index (GDI). If there is no gender-based inequality, the GDI will be identical to the HDI. However, in 2002 while the HDI was 66 the GDI was 59.

The GDI however gives only a partial indication of woman's position. In Indonesia, as in many other countries, women face numerous social barriers, some more visible than others. Women's status generally can be assessed using the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) which incorporates a series of indicators, including women's representation in parliament, the proportion of women in senior official managerial and technical staff positions at work, as well as women's non-agricultural wages compared with men's. Indonesia's GEM rating increased slightly between 1999 and 2002; indeed it is superior to that of a number of other countries in the region.

A fragile democracy

Indonesia has also been able to consolidate its democracy. Since the collapse of the New Order regime there have been two successful national elections. And there have also been improvements in the electoral system that should make leaders more accountable. Nevertheless, political institutions are still inadequate: parties tend to be weak groupings of personalities and sectional interests and there is little sign that political debate has been based on a close consideration of the issues. Public confidence in the political system is further undermined by pervasive corruption; Indonesia has been rated as the 12th most corrupt country in the world. Although this is a serious obstacle for business and investment it also hurts the poor who often have to pay bribes just for basic services.

Another positive development has been the process of decentralization. Responsibility for some 2.2 million central civil servants has been reassigned to the regions, along with control over 16,000 service facilities – a dramatic changeover achieved without any major breakdown in services. Nevertheless the process has in many respects been seriously flawed: the distribution of functions between the central government and the regions remains unclear and the current formulae for fiscal redistribution raise the prospect of increased regional inequality.

Indonesians have also benefited from improvements in physical security. From 1997 onwards many parts of the country had become very insecure as a result of political and ethnic struggles: over the period 1990-2003, according to UNSFIR's database there were 3,600 violent incidents resulting in the loss of more than 10,700 lives. However over recent years the number of incidents and of deaths have dropped steeply: between 1999 and 2003 the number of incidents fell from 523 to 295 and the number of resulting deaths from 3,546 to 111.

The rights approach

Indonesians welcome the democratic revival, and the opportunity to make their voices heard. But although democracy has offered many new choices it does not appear to have brought obvious economic gains. Is it reasonable to ask democracy to deliver more than freedom? That depends on how narrowly freedom is defined. Indonesia's poor have a number of channels through which they can express their opinions. But they lack opportunities to fully develop their capacities. Fewer than half of children, for example, actually complete nine years of basic education and around one-quarter of children are undernourished. Millions are thus starting their lives in an era of political freedom but with their social and economic options seriously constrained.

Human development implies much more than this. It involves enhancing freedom in the broadest sense – by expanding people's choices, not just to select their political leaders but also to live full and healthy lives. The responsibility for ensuring that they can do so has to be shared very broadly: everyone has a role to play, whether as individuals, or in families or in communities, but they can also expect strong support from the state. This may seem a new proposition – that citizens of Indonesia should demand from the state not just political rights but also social and economic rights. But previous governments have already endorsed these rights in international fora – indeed they have accepted the principle of an overall Right to Development.

This rights-based approach has a number of key elements, including such issues as equality, empowerment and participation. Everyone across the country should not only have the same rights, they should also be fully involved in determining those rights and in setting priorities.

The health and education divides

Prior to the recent crisis Indonesia was quite successful in fulfilling some basic rights – translating rapid economic growth into equally rapid human development. However much of this has been achieved through private rather than public expenditure. In the case of health, for example, the government is responsible for only 20% of expenditure – less than half the average for the countries of East Asia and the Pacific. Since the benefits of private expenditure tend to be weighted towards the rich, this has contributed to a significant health divide: infant mortality rates for the poor, for example, are three times higher than for the rich. There is a similar, if less marked, divide in education.

Bridging the health and education divides will require an increase in public expenditure. This makes sense because many of the resulting improvements in health and education are 'public goods', meaning that the benefits accrue not just to individuals but also reverberate throughout the society: better educated and healthier people are, for example, more productive and thus can help raise national income. Private decisions do not take these benefits into account; were it left entirely to individuals there would probably be underinvestment in these services.

The rights approach also fits in with many of Indonesia's ongoing development initiatives and processes – notably the poverty reduction strategy paper (PRSP) and the efforts

to meet the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The rights approach is also particularly appropriate for supporting Indonesia's radical process of decentralization: at the national level much of the debate about economic and social rights has to be pitched in a general way, but at the local level there can be a much more dynamic interaction between providers of services and users. So while the central government can mandate minimum service standards the achievement of these standards can best be monitored at the local level.

Counting the cost

What would it take to fulfil these rights and in particular to ensure that everyone received essential health care, had a good basic education, had enough to eat, and felt safe and secure?

Health

Good health is the outcome of many different factors, including poverty, environmental circumstances, and matters of personal behaviour. But it also depends on the availability of effective health services, particularly at the community level. Nowadays the public health network is extensive and well distributed across the country, however the quality is often low – one of the reasons why many people opt for private care.

Costing the required state investment in health is difficult since funds could usefully be directed to many different areas – from building better infrastructure for water and sanitation, to improving the environment, to limiting vector-borne diseases. Funds could also be productively invested in health education – both for preventive measures and also to encourage better 'health-seeking behaviour' so that people made the right choices when faced with health problems.

Probably the simplest way to estimate the costs is to concentrate on the health needs of the poor. The World Bank has estimated that a basic health package for everyone in the country would cost Rp. 10.7 trillion. However this does not include hospital or in-patient care. The Ministry of Health has therefore made a proposal for extra funds to cover this in the form of a 'poverty health grant' which could be distributed to districts on the basis of their individual needs. This would add Rp. 2.9 trillion, making a total of Rp. 13.6 trillion. Current expenditure on primary care is Rp. 8.4 trillion suggesting that the required increase to guarantee basic health rights is Rp. 5.2 trillion.

Education

The best estimates of what it would cost to fulfil the rights to basic education have been produced by the Ministry of National Education in its National Plan of Action: *Indonesia's Education for All*. This report estimates what it would take to offer equal access for all boys and girls to high quality education. This concludes that the annual 'ideal' expenditure per pupil should be Rp 1.17 million at the primary level and Rp. 2.28 million at the junior secondary level. On this basis, to fulfil the right to basic education would require an increase from Rp. 33 trillion to Rp 58 trillion. This may seem a dramatic rise but in fact Indonesia's Constitution already commits the country to spending more than this.

Poverty and the right to food

The cost of guaranteeing food security can be estimated from the numbers of those living in poverty. Someone is considered as living below the poverty line if they do not have sufficient resources to consume 2,100 calories per day and also to purchase essential non-food items such as clothing and shelter. In 2002 to afford the basic minimum food requirement they would have needed Rp. 82,328 per person per month while for the non-food items they would have needed Rp. 28,957. Since both food and non-food items are considered essential, effectively everyone who falls below this poverty line is food insecure – 18% of the population, 38 million people.

The most direct way to eliminate poverty now would be to give the poor sufficient funds to purchase both food and essential non-food items. This would cost around Rp. 8.4 trillion. However, if the health and education investments indicated above had been made, this in itself would have already reduced poverty by reducing the cost of the non-food items. One way of accounting for this would be to guarantee food security only to the 4.4% of the population who fall below the Rp. 82,328 food poverty line. The total annual cost of distributing food to this group would be Rp. 3.68 trillion. This is Rp. 1.09 trillion less than the existing Raskin food subsidy programme, largely because it aims to cover a smaller group of people.

Physical security

Improving physical security would demand wide-ranging reforms – in the justice system and in the police force. If the aim were to improve the quality and effectiveness of policing in addition to better training and supervision this would require adequate numbers of police personnel who were sufficiently well paid that they did not resort so readily to corruption.

How much would it cost to offer more reasonable police salaries? Currently the annual budget for the police is Rp. 7.5 trillion. Setting the wages according to Malaysian or Singaporean standards, for example, would mean that current wages would have to be roughly quadrupled, increasing the total budget to Rp. 26.7 trillion. This sum would be even larger if there were more police: if the ratio of police to population were improved from the current level of 1:798 to the ASEAN standard of 1:400 then the cost would increase to Rp. 53.3 trillion. An alternative would be to choose the current ratio in Jakarta of one 1:750 and set this as the national target. In that case, the estimated annual cost of providing physical security by increasing police salaries and numbers becomes Rp. 28.4 trillion – an increase of Rp. 20.9 trillion.

The total cost

These estimates for fulfilling rights to food security, to health, to education and physical security, can only give a general indication of requirements. And it should be emphasized that they largely refer to routine costs rather than to development or capital costs. Contrary to the conventional assumption, however, they do show that in both political and financial terms meeting these rights should be well within Indonesia's reach. The totals are indicated in the table below, suggesting that public expenditure on these sectors would need to increase from 3% of GDP to 6%.

Annual costs for financing basic rights

	Current annual cost		Required increase, Rp. trillion	Full annual cost	
	Rp. trillion	% GDP		Rp. trillion	% GDP
Food security	4.8	0.27	-1.1	3.7	0.2
Basic health	8.4	0.47	5.2	13.6	0.77
Basic education	33.0	1.84	25.0	58.0	3.24
Physical security	7.5	0.42	20.9	28.4	1.59
Total	53.7	3.00	50.0	103.7	5.80

Rethinking fiscal priorities

If Indonesia is to commit an additional 3% of GDP to public expenditure on social services it will need to re-examine its fiscal priorities. To some extent this will involve shifting expenditure from non-priority sectors to the social sectors. Over 20% of public expenditure, for example, currently goes to support state-owned enterprises. These subsidies should fall as more economic activity becomes market-driven, freeing up more funds to invest in the social sectors.

One way to demonstrate the government's commitment to change priorities in this way would be to create a Social Sector Fund (SSF). This could be built up by taking a certain percentage of the proceeds from the exploitation of natural resources. Following the example of the fuel subsidy compensation fund, the SSF could also be allocated a percentage of the proceeds from privatization and from any savings from reforms and restructuring. Another possibility is to apply a social sector levy on corporations or on wealthy individuals.

However in addition to reallocating resources the government will probably also have to increase public expenditure. This would first mean collecting more in taxes. Indonesia's tax burden, currently at about 12% of GDP, is relatively light, mainly as a result of the inefficiency of the tax system combined with large-scale evasion.

At the same time the government could also accept a higher level of fiscal deficit. Modest deficits can be useful; not only can they fund social spending but at a time when private investment is low they provide a fiscal stimulus. Far from crowding out private investment such public investment can actually crowd it in. This will be the case when it is used to improve physical infrastructure, for example, and also when it promotes social cohesion, both of which improve the overall investment climate.

It should be emphasized, however, that simply increasing social spending will not in itself improve social services. In the past, public spending has often been of low quality, compromised by widespread corruption and rent-seeking. In the current, more constrained environment the government will have to pay greater attention to wastage and cost effectiveness.

The process of decentralization should in principle offer opportunities for more effective controls through stronger local institutions. But decentralization also entails risks, particularly that of widening disparities: in 2001, on a per capita basis the richest local government already had 50 times more revenue than the poorest.

A National Summit for Human Development

In these circumstances Indonesia needs to arrive at a national consensus on meeting its citizens' human development rights. It has to establish minimum socially acceptable levels of human development across the country – and allocate its resources accordingly.

This can be achieved by holding a National Summit for Human Development that agrees on the list of essential public goods and the level at which they should be provided. It should then consider various targets and the timelines for their achievement.

Once Indonesians have agreed on the appropriate level of public social expenditure, they must then consider ways of mobilizing resources. They should discuss what should be taxed and at what rates and also consider the revenue-raising capacity of the regions. This will then prompt the difficult question of cross-subsidization. While the richer regions may believe this merely implies sacrifices on their part they also need to be made aware of the dangers to national stability of allowing other regions to lag too far behind.

Indonesia's founding fathers chose as their motto for nation building 'unity in diversity' – a vision that remains valuable to this day. A National Summit for Human Development would help foster this kind of unity and reach a consensus about what it means to be a citizen of Indonesia. This would not only give further impetus to decentralization but also help promote national solidarity, forge a sense of common purpose – and both widen and deepen Indonesian democracy.

Indonesia in transition: Towards an economic arithmetic of democracy

Indonesia needs to invest more in human development – not just to fulfil its people’s basic rights but to lay the foundations for economic growth and to ensure the long-term survival of its democracy.

Indonesia’s first National Human Development Report in 2001 highlighted the link between human development and democracy – arguing that if Indonesia was to consolidate its young democracy it would need to accelerate progress in human development. It also argued that in an era of decentralization this progress would need to be based on a new social contract that underpinned the political legitimacy of Indonesia’s new system of governance and established common rights for everyone across the country.

The New Order government operated in a very different fashion – basing its legitimacy not on civil rights but on economic growth. The Asian financial crisis put an end to this – resulting not just in an economic crash but in a political implosion. Indonesians, like people the world over, ultimately rejected a bargain that involved trading freedom for bread; their concept of the good life included not only economic growth but also rights and freedoms that would give them greater control over decisions affecting their day-to-day lives – and enhance the possibility of greater social justice.

These principles have been advocated in a number of national and global human development reports. But the citizens of Indonesia have not arrived at this conclusion through the advocacy of technical writings or learned discourses, or under bureaucratic fiat or exhortation. Rather they have done so because they considered human freedom to be an inherent part of human well being.

No longer do they want to see tradeoffs between growth and social justice, between good economics and good politics, between the prosperity of the community and the freedom of the individual. This notion of development *as* freedom is not so much a road map to better development arithmetic, however, as an assertion of core values and beliefs. When it comes to social and economic transformation Indonesians now expect public policy to be based on the principle that people are not just the means of development but the ends of development – that people should come first.

The same key principles are evident in the celebration of democracy in many other developing and transition countries. This might sound too confident a claim at a time when a number of developing countries appear to have aborted their once-promising democratic transitions in favour of a return to outright authoritarian rule – or to some half-way house between political dictatorship and economic freedom, termed by some as ‘illiberal’ democracy. These reversions to authoritarianism are unfortunate but they do not imply a rejection of core human rights and values. Rather they represent frustration with the forms that democratic transitions have taken. These have not only produced the inevitable instability and uncertainty associated with any transfer of power from a single dictator to a multitude of political parties and interest groups but have also in many cases allowed elections to be manipulated by former ruling elites.

Failed democratic transitions reflect public disappointment at the inability of open elections to deliver effective government. In these circumstances public frustration represents a loss of faith not in the importance of civil rights but in the ability of democratically elected political parties and governments to deliver those rights. People are understandably suspicious of transitions that involve little more than bringing in new electoral laws and that succeed only in consolidating the political power of former oligarchies.

Free and fair elections are essential to a new democracy. But they are only the first step on a long journey in which the maps and the milestones are provided by the establishment of new institutions that give practical effect to the promise of democracy – building a system of government which is best able to enlarge human rights and freedoms.

This second Human Development Report for Indonesia is situated in these central currents of recent development and political thought. But it goes further to ask a simple, practical question. Given that consolidation of democracy requires the guarantee of civil rights for all, how much would these guarantees cost? This is an obvious question but one that is often overlooked when political reforms are being conducted in the throes of an economic crisis.

The Indonesian economic collapse of 1997-98 triggered the largest output fall in post-independence history: the most severe economic crisis that the average Indonesian had ever encountered. It followed a generation or more of rising expectations that had been fuelled by high economic growth and the movement of people from the countryside to the towns. When it came it was totally unexpected – and devastated the lives of millions of Indonesians, leaving many of them with very little prospect of ever gaining secure employment.

The government and much of the public were understandably pre-occupied with the immediate task of regaining economic momentum – of returning to the pre-crisis prosperity. Economic crises are times of scarcity and are often perceived, though not always correctly, as times of belt tightening and of making do – hardly the occasion to ask for new budgetary expenditures, especially when these are linked to what might be considered as abstract philosophical concepts such as civil rights.

In fact, however, taking this broader and more philosophical view is also very practical. Regaining the confidence of the business community certainly does depend on economic and legal measures – enacting laws and regulations to improve the business environment and build the political legitimacy of the country's governing and social institutions – through effective bankruptcy laws and courts, for example, through healthy banks and stock markets, and through the certainty of contracts and property rights. All these are recognized engines of economic growth – as are a stable macroeconomic environment, along with the stable exchange rates and low inflation rates that are important to investment decisions.

What the Indonesian experience, along with those of other countries in systemic transition, is telling us, however, is that these alone will not deliver a sustainable economic recovery. Something more is needed to bring about a rise in investor confidence. That missing ingredient is the confidence of the general public in the country's governing institutions. Only through such public confidence can Indonesia complete its democratic transition and repair its social fabric. This would also go a long way towards reassuring the business community that future unexpected shocks will not lead to another systemic collapse and generalized business bankruptcy.

The critical lesson of the Indonesian transition is that changing an entire political system and its institutional structure requires political legitimacy and public trust. It is not merely a matter of new laws and regulations or even of changing public servants and judges. Taken to its basics, it is a matter of opting for alternative value systems and establishing a new set of core beliefs. Just as the language of authoritarianism had been based on the vocabulary of obedience, order, and hierarchy, so a nascent democracy demands a new vocabulary that can be used to articulate freedoms, entitlements and empowerment.

This second National Human Development Report (NHDR) comes down firmly on the side of rights and freedoms. It would therefore necessarily defend basic human development rights – to health, education, food, physical security and political participation – even if guaranteeing these rights represented a significant drain on the public purse. In fact, however, the additional costs are likely to be well within the government's means. They also represent a sound investment. The declaration, the adoption and the financing of human development rights makes not only political but also economic sense by laying the foundation for the political stability needed by investors and banks. The 2001 NHDR introduced this argument; the subsequent chapters of this report develop it in greater detail.

Box 1.1 – Human and socio-economic rights in Indonesia's constitution

Right to Social and Food Security

Every citizen shall have the right to work and to earn a humane livelihood.

Article 27(2)

The state shall develop a system of social security for all of the people and shall empower the inadequate and underprivileged in society in accordance with human dignity. Article 34 (2)

Right to Human Security

Every person shall have the right to live and defend his/her life and existence. Article 28A

Every child shall have the right to live, to grow and to develop, and shall have the right to protection from violence and discrimination. Article 28B (2)

Every person shall have the right to protection of his/herself, family, honour, dignity, and property, and shall have the right to feel secure against and receive protection from the threat of fear to do or not do something that is a human right. Article 28G (1)

Every person shall have the right to social security in order to develop oneself fully as a dignified human being. Article 28H (3)

Right to Education

Every person shall have the right to develop him/herself through the fulfillment of his/her basic needs, the right to education and to benefit from science and technology, arts and culture, for the purpose of improving the quality of his/her life and for the welfare of the human race. Article 28 C (1)

Every citizen has the right to receive education. Article 31 (1)

Every citizen has the obligation to undertake basic education, and the government has the obligation to fund this. Article 31 (2)

Right to Health

Every person shall have the right to live in physical and spiritual prosperity, to have a home and to enjoy a good and healthy environment, and shall have the right to obtain medical care. Article 28H (1)

The state shall have the obligation to provide sufficient medical and public service facilities. Article 34 (3)

The place of human development in Indonesia's systemic transition

The 2001 NHDR was prepared during 2000: the first year of the new democracy and prior to Indonesia's dramatic decentralization and the series of far reaching constitutional amendments. The political landscape was fluid; economic progress was uncertain; and social stress was high, with fears of a rising tide of ethnic and religious conflict. Even so, democracy had generated hopes of a new beginning and of a resumption of normality.

The 2001 NHDR considered these developments in the light of the international literature linking human development to democracy. It also recalled Indonesia's abortive attempt to introduce democratic government in the early 1950s. As the report pointed out, the emerging international consensus emphasized the importance of institutions in the effective functioning of markets, including such intangibles as social trust and capital. It also said that Indonesia's constitutional history cautioned against taking democracy for granted, emphasizing that the democratic tide could not only advance but also retreat.

This is how the first NHDR described the situation in 2000:

"Nowadays most people acknowledge the importance of having a cleaner and more open system in which everyone plays by the same rules. But there are still serious doubts that Indonesia is yet up to the task of administering such a system. This is understandable. Indonesia's democracy is still in a fragile condition. The political parties are weak and inexperienced. Several provinces are being torn apart by social conflict. And on top of this there is the likely upheaval entailed in the country's ambitious schedule for decentralization."

Against this background, the 2001 report examined the connection between democratic governance and human development. It showed that attention to human development was a necessary first step in the transition from authoritarianism to democratic governance and could also help heal the country's enormous social divisions. During the New Order period these divisions often remained hidden, only surfacing after the economic collapse – as violence erupted in many parts of the country, fuelling fears of impending national disintegration.

The 2001 NHDR said that a rights-based approach to human development would help heal these social divisions by bringing the dividends of democracy to the common people. But it argued that human development would also be the key to reworking the Indonesian 'economic miracle'. Indonesian development prior to 1997 had attracted international attention because of its high rate of economic growth. This growth was impressive but hardly miraculous. What gave development in Indonesia the status of a miracle, however, was the fact that rapid growth was accompanied by a relatively equal distribution of income. The result was a sustained fall in the proportion of the population below the 2,100-calorie poverty line.

Admirers of the New Order used the fact that such a

miracle occurred under a centralized and authoritarian political system to argue that economic growth and poverty reduction in developing countries, especially in Asia, would be better served not by pluralist democracy but by 'illiberal democracy'. They also used it to confirm the importance of local culture, in this case, 'Asian values'.

These illusions were cruelly shattered by the financial shock of late 1997. As the enormity of the economic bankruptcy and the social costs of the crisis emerged, it became clear that a reworking of the Indonesian miracle would need to pay much greater attention to other paths to human development. The 2001 NHDR made the case for a development consensus built around a new social contract by which a democratic state would undertake to give a non-negotiable priority to a set of core civil and economic rights and entitlements. The 'miracle' could only be resurrected by attending to growth and equity simultaneously.

The 2004 NHDR takes the arguments of the 2001 report to its logical conclusion. It asks whether Indonesia can afford a new social contract based on key civil and economic rights – basic education, basic health, food security, law and order and political participation. And it demonstrates that the country can afford such a contract. If the 2001 Report focussed on the 'why' of human development, this report examines the 'how' and the 'how much'.

A National Summit for Human Development and the politics of consensus

Consensus is a much abused concept in Indonesian political history. The New Order regime used the term extensively to convey the sense of national unity and order that it championed. As a result even today, there can be a residual aversion to the word. Yet a national consensus on the core values and principles of democracy is needed today more than ever.

It is for this reason that this report emphasizes the importance of a political agreement on basic rights and responsibilities. Some piecemeal efforts have already been made in this direction – from new provisions in the Constitution to national strategies in poverty reduction, to medium-term development plans. These objectives are also implicit in the detailed attention now being given to the design of minimum service standards for the regions.

Despite this impressive volume of pronouncements, Indonesia still lacks a broad political agreement – covering both central, provincial and district governments – on citizens' rights and the implications for setting public expenditure and revenue priorities. The result is a proliferation of detail without clarity of direction. This inevitably undermines efforts to build public support: without a clear vision and the political support needed to translate it into effective policy, even efficient and much needed programmes are likely to be eroded by the diverse pulls of different economic and political interests.

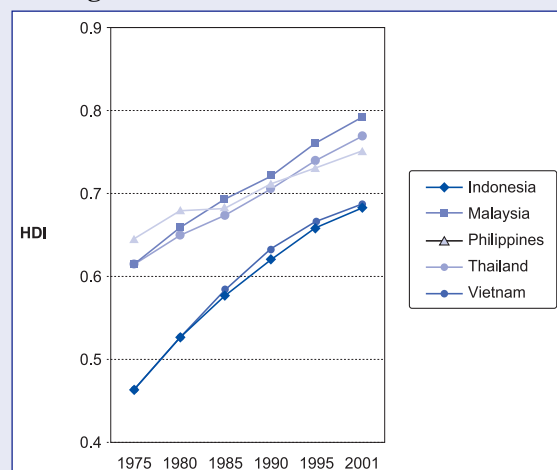
This NHDR aims to prepare the ground for a ‘National Summit for Human Development’. Many countries have used such a national conference or summit when confronted with the adoption of a new political system or faced with the immense problems of redefining the relative positions of different social groups in national life. Indonesia can now use such a summit to lay the political foundations for public expenditure priorities that are rooted in human development rights.

This second NHDR is therefore not just an investigation of costs and budgets related to human development. It is intended to signal the way towards a national consensus on what a democracy can bring to every citizen. It aims to spell out the building blocks of a new economics of democracy where the effectiveness of the market is complemented by the compassion of the state, where the demands of economic growth are tempered by the desire for social justice, where short-term efficiency is counter weighted by considerations of longer term stability. Above all it intends to provide a reasoned argument for the protection of minority rights and the politics of inclusion.

Box 1.2 – Challenges of human development in Indonesia

Indonesia's progress in human development has undoubtedly been very impressive. But that should not be a cause for complacency. A number of concerns need to be kept in mind in formulating policies for the future. First, there are millions of people living just above the poverty line who remain vulnerable. Second, Indonesia's achievements should be placed in the regional context. In literacy, health and access to media Indonesia lags behind other second-tier newly industrializing Southeast Asian countries. This underperformance is captured in the human development index in Box Figure 1.

Box Figure 1 – HDI trends in ASEAN countries



Starting from a lower base, Indonesia made faster improvements in HDI than Malaysia, Thailand and the Philippines, and until the late-1980s it was converging on these countries. But progress has tapered off since 1990. Third, Indonesia has consistently spent less than the other countries on education and health. Finally, Indonesia still has a lot to do to improve the status of women.

The state of human development in Indonesia

Indonesia continues its faltering recovery from a financial collapse in 1997 that triggered a whole series of upheavals – economic, social and political. Certainly there have been improvements in many of the basic development indicators such as health and education. But overall progress has been slow, and future prospects are hampered by the lack of an extensive and inclusive national debate about the future direction for human development.

Indonesia has had one fundamental success: in the face of potential disintegration, the country has retained its territorial integrity. The central government still faces armed secessionist struggles in Aceh and Papua. In addition, it has to deal with sporadic violence between different ethnic and religious groups that has subsided in some areas but flared up in others. And it must also cope with random violence from international terrorists who have already cast a shadow over Bali and Jakarta. Nevertheless Indonesia has survived as one nation, partly because in 2001 the government embarked upon a rapid process of decentralization that accommodated some of the demands for greater regional autonomy.

On the economic front, growth is at least positive, though alone among the countries worst affected by the Asian crisis Indonesia has yet to regain its former pace of economic growth. In particular, Indonesia has found it difficult to attract the scale of both domestic and foreign investment that from the 1970s to the 1990s helped to propel the economy forward.

On the political front, Indonesia's recovery from the years of autocratic government has also been slow. Democracy survives, but as the 2004 elections have shown, it has not put down very deep roots. Political organization remains a pattern of shifting alliances based on personalities and sectional interest groups rather than on coherent ideologies that present a choice of visions for the country's future.

Indonesia's human development index

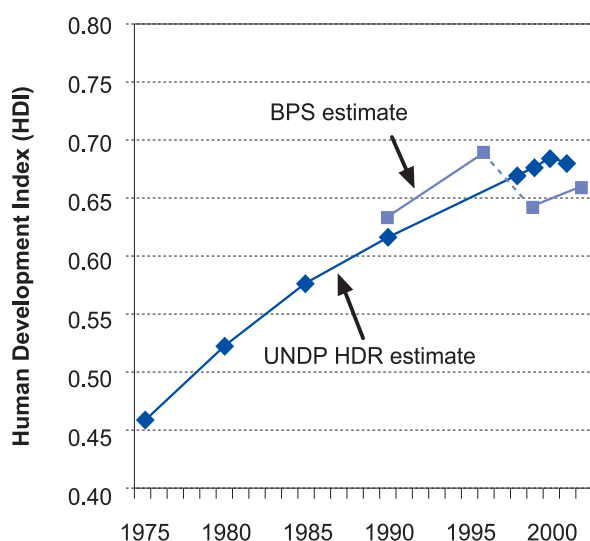
Beyond the economic and political dramas there remains the daily struggle for survival: around half the popula-

tion have a precarious existence. Monitoring their progress is difficult – it means keeping track of more than 200 million people, divided into multiple ethnic groups and scattered over more than 400 districts across a vast archipelago. Moreover, human development is itself a broad and comprehensive concept that encompasses a wide range of human capabilities from health and nutrition, to democratic freedoms, and quality of life – most of which are difficult to pin down in statistics.

Nevertheless some indication can be gleaned from those data that are available and that can be used to compute Indonesia's human development index (HDI) which combines measures of life expectancy, educational attainment and income into a single figure. Figure 2.1 shows the trend in the national HDI from two sources. The first is UNDP's global *Human Development Report* (HDR), which presents data back to 1975. The second is Indonesia's Central Bureau of Statistics (BPS) which uses the same general methodology but slightly different data and has computed the index only since the early 1990s.

As Figure 2.1 shows, Indonesia's HDI rose steadily until the mid-1990s. Then after 1996, according to the BPS data, it fell sharply – though according to the global HDR it continued to rise until 2001. The BPS estimate also shows greater fluctuations because it uses a different measure of income: the global HDR uses per capita GDP based on national accounts while BPS uses household consumption or expenditure, based on sample surveys of households, which better reflect the actual experience of the lower income groups. After 1996 there was a change in the way BPS gathered household income and expenditure, hence the break in the series. The sharp drop between 1996 and 1999 registered by BPS is due partly to this change but mainly to the fall in household expenditure as a result of the crisis. Between 1999 and 2002 the figure for expenditure recovered and the levels of educational attainment also increased, though the figure for life expectancy increased only slightly. In fact all the component indicators are now above those for 1996.

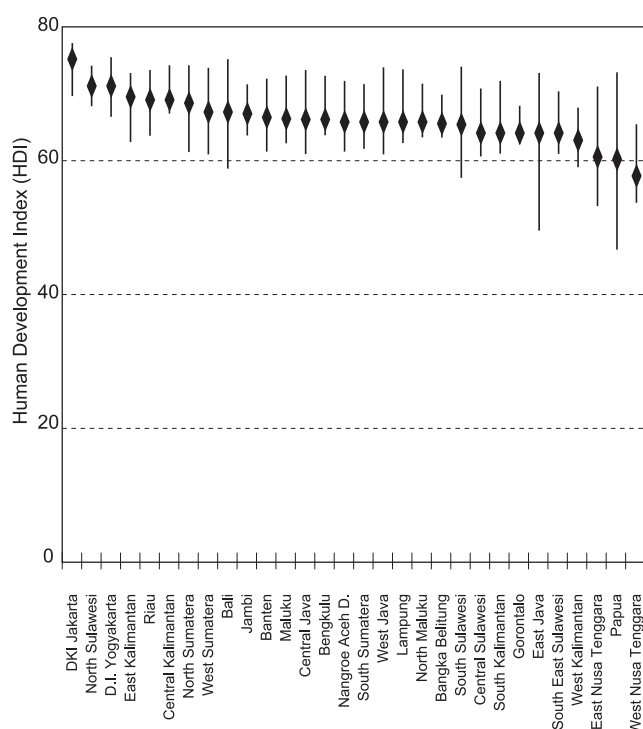
Figure 2.1 – Human development index (HDI) 1975-2002



Source: UNDP Human Development Report, various years, and BPS

The average HDI value for Indonesia from BPS in 2003 is 66. However this masks a considerable variation across the country. The Appendix to this report lists the HDI for each province and district¹. This shows significant differences between the provinces, from 76 in Jakarta to 58 in West Nusatenggara. However, there are even

Figure 2.2 – Range of HDI values within provinces, 2002



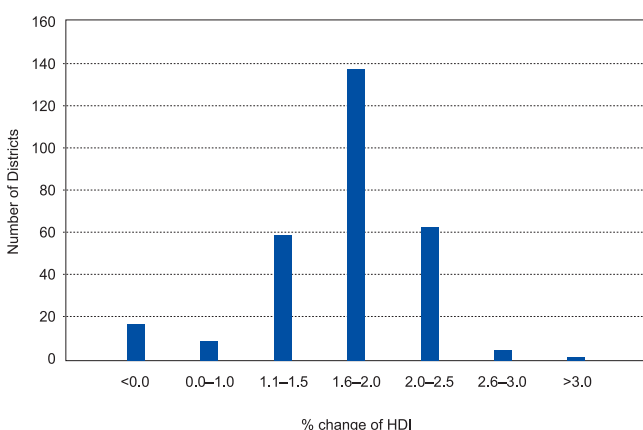
Note: The diamond represents the weighted average for the province, and the line links the lowest and highest values.

greater differences between the districts – whose HDIs range from 76 in East Jakarta to 47 in the district of Jayawijaya in Papua.

These inter-district differences are also evident within individual provinces. This is illustrated in Figure 2.2 which shows the average HDI for each province along with the range of values for the districts within that province. The province with the widest variation is Papua – where the district HDIs vary from 47 in the rugged highlands of Jayawijaya to 73 in the port city of Sorong. East Java too shows wide variations, between the city of Surabaya with a HDI of 72 and the district of Sampang on the island of Madura, only 90 kilometres away, with a HDI of just 50.

Just as there are variations in the HDI across the country, there are also differences in the rates of progress. Most districts made progress between 1999 and 2002; however 18 districts saw a fall in their HDIs (Figure 2.3). Most of the declining regions are concentrated in the Malukus and Papua – four in Maluku and North Maluku and seven in Papua. In Papua, the main factors have been deteriorations in education and income. In the Malukus,

Figure 2.3 – Uneven progress in HDI



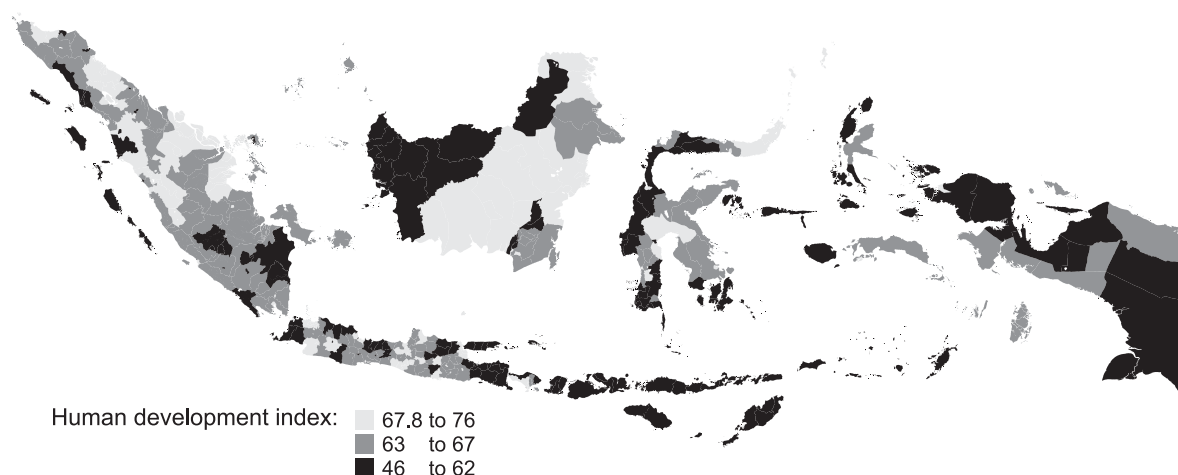
the two contributing factors have been declines in life expectancy and real income that can be related to social conflict.

A further point to note is that the splitting of some districts over the period 1999 to 2002 caused dramatic changes in HDIs. For example, with the split of Banggai into Banggai and Banggai Kepulauan, the HDI in Banggai Kepulauan fell by 1.6% and that in Banggai went up by 4%. Here as in a number of other cases, the richer part of the region, believing that the backward part was holding it back, decided to go it alone – a phenomenon that has been described as an “aspiration to inequality”.

To give a more general impression of the variation in HDI across the country, Figure 2.4 maps the HDI values across Indonesia. This makes it clear the extent to which low and high values of the HDI are scattered across the country.

1 This English version of the Human Development Report uses the general term 'district' to refer both to rural districts, kabupaten, and their urban equivalents, the kota.

Figure 2.4 – Map of human development index by district, 2002



One of the most important development tasks is to convert economic growth into improvements in human development. A number of countries have been more successful at this than others. In the global human development report, Sweden, for example, ranks only 18th when it comes to per capita income but third when it comes to the HDI, reflecting the country's relatively equitable form of development and its extensive welfare state. Other countries have been less effective at translating economic growth into human development. Thus, Saudi Arabia ranks 40th in terms of per capita income but 73rd when it comes to the HDI. On this criterion Indonesia's performance is fairly average – ranked 114th on income and 112th on the HDI.

A similar exercise can also be carried out for the provinces and districts within Indonesia, by comparing their

ranking for average per capita GDP with their ranking when it comes to the HDI. In this case the outcome will largely reflect Indonesia's historical policy of gathering all resources to the centre and redistributing them to the provinces and districts. The result for the provinces is shown in Table 2.1. The province which appears to have benefited most is Yogyakarta which is ranked seventeen places higher in HDI than in per capita GDP. At the other end of the scale is Papua which is ranked 26 places lower in HDI than in GDP, a clear indication that the income from Papua's natural resources has not been invested sufficiently in services for the people. A more detailed trend analysis of the results of this year's HDI and the other human development indicators is available in Appendix II of this report.

Box 2.1 – Applying the human development index in Indonesia

Following decentralization the responsibility for most development activities has passed to the districts. Many local officials are faced for the first time with the task of promoting human development in their own areas. What use is the human development index (HDI) to them?

To answer this question, we first need to appreciate the relationship between the human development concept and the human development index. The human development concept is very broad - encompassing almost every aspect of human life - from freedom of expression, to gender equality, to employment, to child nutrition, to adult literacy. The human development index, on the other hand, has a much narrower scope. It can measure the state of human development only partially, mainly because many aspects of human life, such as overall happiness or community relationship are impossible to measure in numerical terms. Thus, the focus should be more on the concept and less on the index. This means that in every aspect of their work local officials should put people first - considering them not as means but as ends. Rather than trying to educate people and keep them healthy in order to provide a better workforce, for example, or to boost economic prosperity, they should instead try to help men, women and children to lead richer and more fulfilling lives. So every activity, be it investing in roads, or granting licenses for mining, or building new health facilities, should aim to enlarge the choices available to the whole population, and to do so in a way that is equitable and sustainable.

The human development index offers some guidance. The gap between the current index and 100 represents the human development "shortfall" - the distance that each district needs to travel. Comparison over time can tell us about an individual district's progress or lack of it. Districts can also be compared and ranked. The HDI can thus serve as a guide for resource allocation - and the current formula for the general allocation transfer (the DAU) from the centre does include HDI as an indicator. However, for this and other purposes it needs to be used carefully. If the shortfall in one district is twice as big as in another this does not necessarily mean its development budget should therefore be twice as big. For example, compare Jayawijaya, a remote district in Papua, which has a HDI of only 47 (a shortfall of 53) and East Jakarta which has a HDI of 76 (a shortfall of 24). The shortfall in the case of Jayawijaya is more than double that of East Jakarta. Does this mean that Jayawijaya's development budget per capita should be at least twice that of East Jakarta? Not necessarily. The budgetary implications should instead be based on a close consideration of the situation of each district - on its infrastructure needs, and the current level of development as indicated by individual components of the HDI.

However, a general guideline can be developed for resource transfer based on grouping the regions into four categories: low (HDI less than 50), lower-medium (HDI between 50 and 65.99), upper-medium (HDI between 66 and 79.99) and high (HDI above 80). For example, in 2002, there were 2 districts in the low category and none in the high category while 172 districts fell in the lower-medium and 167 in the upper-medium categories. Placing a district into one of these categories gives a general indication of needs, but this should be complemented with information on other issues such as the remoteness of the district, its population size and density, the state of its infrastructure and its rate of progress.

Table 2.1 – Comparison of per capita GRDP and HDI, 2002

	GRDP	GDRP rank	HDI	HDI rank	GRDP rank minus HDI rank
D. I. Yogyakarta	1,581	20	70.8	3	17
Maluku	950	28	66.5	12	16
North Sulawesi	1,695	17	71.3	2	15
Jambi	1,270	23	67.1	10	13
Bengkulu	1,188	24	66.2	14	10
Central Java	1,340	22	66.3	13	9
Lampung	1,085	27	65.8	18	9
Riau	2,050	13	69.1	5	8
West Sumatera	1,714	16	67.5	8	8
North Maluku	1,094	26	65.8	19	7
South East Sulawesi	948	29	64.1	26	3
Central Kalimantan	2,321	8	69.1	6	2
East Nusa Tenggara	756	30	60.3	28	2
DKI Jakarta	7,705	2	75.6	1	1
West Java	1,680	18	65.8	17	1
Gorontalo	1,117	25	64.1	24	1
North Sumatera	2,357	7	68.8	7	0
South Sulawesi	1,340	21	65.3	21	0
South Sumatera	1,769	15	66.0	16	-1
East Kalimantan	9,242	1	70.0	4	-3
Bali	2,497	6	67.5	9	-3
Banten	2,727	5	66.6	11	-6
East Java	1,641	19	64.1	25	-6
Bangka Belitung	2,083	11	65.4	20	-9
Central Sulawesi	2,053	12	64.4	22	-10
Nangroe Aceh Darussalam	3,051	4	66.0	15	-11
South Kalimantan	2,092	10	64.3	23	-13
West Kalimantan	1,975	14	62.9	27	-13
West Nusa Tenggara	2,290	9	57.8	30	-21
Papua	4,180	3	60.1	29	-26

Source: BPS

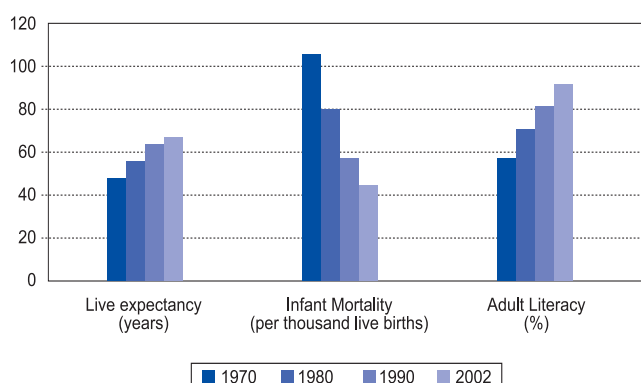
Social indicators

The improvement in the HDI over recent decades has partly been due to increases in the income component of the index. But most of the social indicators within the HDI have also registered steady progress – as have others, such as the infant mortality rate, which is not used directly within the HDI. This is illustrated in Figure 2.4 for the period since 1970. Adult literacy, for example, continues to rise in response to the increase in school enrolment. By 2002, 90% of the population aged 15 or over could read and write and, as an indication of what might be expected in future, for the 15 to 24 age group the literacy rate is now up to 99%.

Encouragingly, the infant mortality rate continued to come down even after 1997, suggesting that the economic crisis did not affect children's health as severely as had been feared. Child malnutrition, as expressed by the proportion of children under five who are underweight for their age, has also declined – from 45% in 1990 to 35% in 1996 and to 25% in 2000 – though it rose again slightly to 27% in 2002². The level of malnutrition remains unacceptably high. Since there is no absolute shortage of food, and certainly not for the small amounts that children eat, there are evidently still serious problems with the way that Indonesia's children are being fed.

2 Government of Indonesia (2004)

Figure 2.4 – Social indicators, 1970-2002



World Bank, World Development Indicators and BPS

Income poverty

Improvements in the HDI reflect progress for the population as a whole. And this progress has been shared to some extent by the poorest. Indeed one of Indonesia's most significant achievements since the 1970s has been the reduction in proportion of people living in income poverty – falling below the national poverty line. The general downward trend is indicated in Figure 2.5. In 1996, BPS revised the methodology to take better account of non-food consumption – hence the break in the series. This change increased the proportion considered to be living below the income poverty line in 1996 from 11% to 18%, and presumably would have produced a similar correction for earlier years.

From 1997, as a result of the crisis, poverty rose steeply – reaching 23% in 1999. By 2002, however, the level had fallen back to 18% – 38 million people. It should also be emphasized that income poverty has been consistently higher in the rural areas than in the urban areas: in 2002 the rate was 21% in the rural areas but only 15% in the urban areas³.

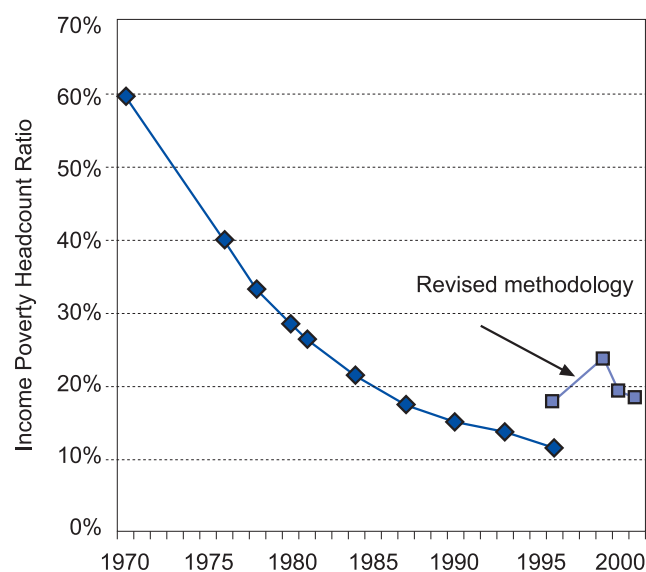
Most of the overall reduction in poverty since 1999, perhaps 40%, is the result of changes in relative prices and particularly a fall in the price of rice which accounts for around 60% of the expenditure of poor households. Another potential contribution to poverty reduction has been a series of increases in the minimum wage – though this tends to benefit workers in the formal sector and is thought to affect only around one-fifth of the poor⁴.

The simple headcount poverty rate gives some indication of the extent of income poverty. But it does not tell the whole story. Some of the poor are worse off than

others. A useful additional indicator therefore is the 'poverty gap index' which indicates the distance between the average income of the poor and the poverty line. As Table 2.2 shows, the poverty gap index rose steeply after the crisis and has stayed at a similar level, indicating that although the proportion of people living in poverty has fallen to almost the pre-crisis level, those who are poor nowadays are worse off. Even so, the level in 2002 was similar to that in the early 1990s. A further measure is the 'severity of poverty' which includes a measurement of the distribution of the income among the poor – this too has failed to revert to the pre-crisis level.

The headcount poverty index also disguises the fact that there is considerable movement in and out of poverty. Even if the rate stays at 18% from one year to the next, this does not necessarily correspond to the same people. There will usually be a group of more permanent 'hard-core' poor, while others drift in and out of poverty. It is important therefore to consider not just those who are currently poor but also those who are vulnerable to poverty – capable of falling below the poverty line at any point. This is a much larger group of people – variously estimated at between one-third and one-half of the population⁵. These are people exposed to many kinds of shock, such as sudden price increases, or the loss of employment, or family sickness. Women appear to be the most vulnerable because they already earn less than men. And those working in agriculture – both men and women – also tend to be in a more precarious position.

Figure 2.5 – Proportion of the population living in income poverty, 1970-2002



Source: BPS

³ BPS (2003)

⁴ World Bank (2003c, p 5, p 44).

⁵ Islam (2002).

Table 2.2 – Trends in income poverty data, 1990-2002

	1990	1993	1996 (1)	1996 (2)	1999	2002
Population Below Poverty Line (%)	15.08	13.67	11.34	17.55	23.43	18.20
Poverty Gap Index (P1)	2.71	3.85	1.70	1.75	4.33	3.01
Severity Index (P2)	0.72	1.11	0.41	0.42	1.23	0.79
Poverty Gap Ratio (P1/P0 *100)	17.97	28.16	14.97	9.97	18.48	16.54

Note: There are two sets of data for 1996, corresponding to the results of the old and new methodologies.
Source: MDG report

Inequality

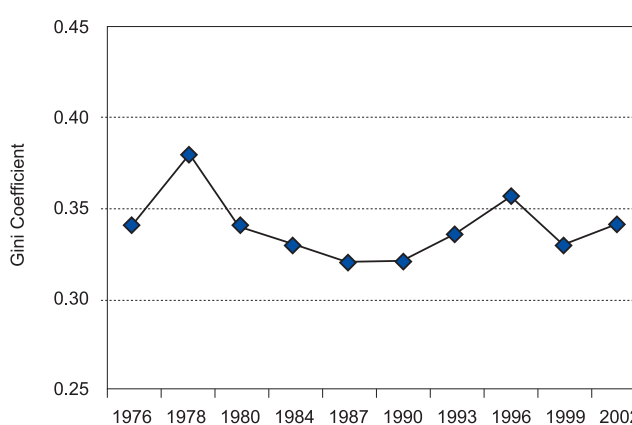
In most countries, the main requirement for an enduring reduction in poverty is economic growth. Economic growth is not sufficient to reduce poverty but it is generally necessary. However, economic growth will be of no value to the poor if it is accompanied by a steep increase in inequality: if the benefits of growth are skewed toward the rich there is a danger that the situation of the poor will not improve at all, indeed it could get worse.

Another of Indonesia's development successes, particularly during the 1970s is that economic growth apparently did not produce a steep increase in inequality. The standard measure of inequality is the Gini coefficient which varies from 0 (absolute equality) to 1 (one person owns everything). As Figure 2.6 indicates, Indonesia's standard Gini coefficient has remained fairly steady over recent decades; the value in 2002 was 0.34, which is close to the historical average.

Whether this represents the true state of affairs is open to question. The inequality data are derived from the National Socio-Economic Survey (Susenas) which gathers information on household expenditure, which is then used as a proxy for income when calculating income distribution. However, this does not fully capture the income of the rich, who tend to save a higher proportion of their income, so it is likely to underestimate inequality.

The Susenas survey has two further weaknesses. The first is that it tends to exclude the very wealthy who are often unwilling to talk to enumerators⁶. The second concerns the Susenas 'consumption basket' which does not necessarily adjust to changes in the pattern of consumption. As people increase their incomes, they may buy different things, choosing from a wider range of higher quality goods – changes that are often not registered by Susenas which can thus underestimate consumption by the rich.

Some indication of the extent of this underestimate can be seen by comparing the results from Susenas with those from National Accounts data. Indonesia's National

Figure 2.6 – Indonesia's Gini coefficient, 1976-2002

Source: BPS

Accounts also estimate total private expenditures but arrive at figures far higher than would be implied by Susenas surveys. Indeed the gap between the two has been widening. In 1970 per capita private consumption, as registered by Susenas, was about 80% of that indicated by the National Accounts but by 2002 the proportion had fallen to 40% – an indication that Susenas consistently under-estimates the national consumption basket.

A low level of inequality would imply that Indonesia had strong mechanisms for redistribution – particularly through government expenditure. But there is not much evidence of this. The most direct form of redistribution by the government would be through a progressive system of taxation that gathered funds from the rich and spent them largely on services or subsidies for the poor. It is doubtful, however, that Indonesia's taxation system or expenditure policies achieve much by way of redistribution. Even after tax reforms in 1984-85, the rich still do not pay a significant share of their income in taxes, leaving the tax burden largely for the middle classes. And although taxes on land and property have increased, the contribution

6 World Bank (2003c, pp 44-45).

of income and corporate taxes has remained quite low. In the budget for 2003, for example, income tax will account for 40% of non-oil domestic revenues while 30% will come from value added tax, and the rest from trade and other sources.

As discussed later in this report, the proportion of GDP devoted to public services such as health and education remains relatively small. Even during the period immediately following the crisis the government spent six or seven times more on bank restructuring and fuel subsidies, which are of greater benefit to the rich and the middle classes, than it did on efforts to protect the poor through social safety nets.

Human poverty

The data on income poverty and inequality are useful but they deal with only one aspect of poverty. They do not reflect the fact that people can be deprived in many other ways, beyond having insufficient income. They may lack education, for example, or be in poor health, or live in an unsafe and insecure environment – and generally lack opportunities to expand their capabilities.

UNDP has also made efforts therefore to broaden the measure of poverty through the human poverty index (HPI). Just as the human development index extends the measure of development by looking beyond per capita GDP, so the HPI looks beyond the income of the poor to take into account other aspects of their lives. The global HPI is a combination of four measures: the probability of not living to age 40; the adult illiteracy rate; the proportion of people without access to safe water, and the percentage of children who are malnourished. The Indonesian HPI

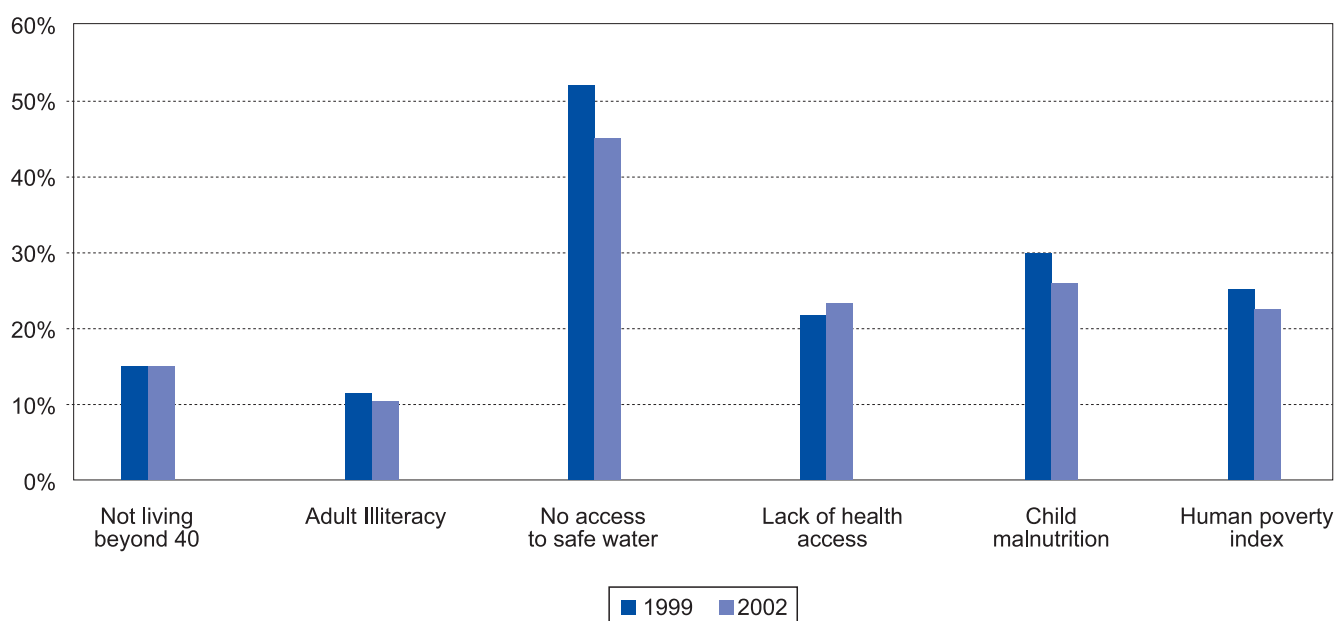
also includes the proportion without ready access to health facilities.

Figure 2.7 shows the changes in the components of the HPI and the HPI itself between 1999 and 2002. This indicates a slight improvement from the position at the height of the crisis – falling from 25.2% to 22.7%. This reflects improvements in all the component indicators, except for the proportion of people without ready access to health facilities which rose slightly.

The change in the HPI is clearly smaller than the reduction in income poverty, chiefly because the variables that make up the HPI are less susceptible to short-term fluctuations than the income poverty index which is based on incomes and prices which tend to be more volatile. There is a further significant difference between the two indices: the HPI, unlike the income poverty estimate, is not a ‘headcount’ index. Thus the figure of 22.7% for the HPI does not mean that 22.7% of the population are living in human poverty. This is because the HPI merges different groups of people: those households without ready access to health facilities are not necessarily the same as those with malnourished children. The HPI serves rather to indicate overall trends, and to permit comparisons between countries and regions.

As with the HDI, there are variations in the HPI across Indonesia’s regions. But again the greatest differences are between the districts. This is evident from Figure 2.8 which shows that most provinces cover a fairly broad spectrum of district HPI values, typically with low values in the major cities and high values in the remote rural areas. In Papua, for example, they range from 14% in the provincial capital of Jayapura to 51% in remote Jayawijaya. The variations in HDI across the country are also mapped in Figure 2.9.

Figure 2.7 – Human poverty index (HPI), 1999 and 2002



Source: BPS

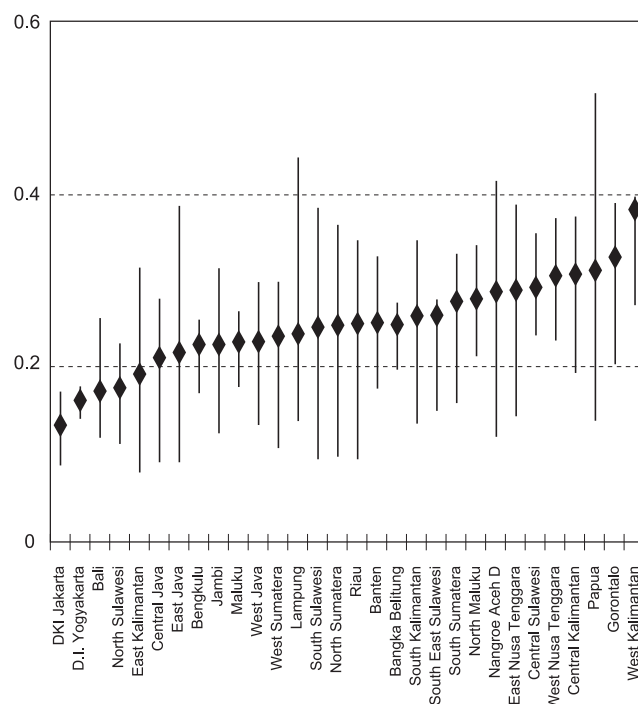
Growth and employment

Indonesia's level of income poverty may have fallen back to its pre-crisis level, but this is still high, and the fact that it has not fallen further is partly because economic growth has been slow. As Figure 2.10 indicates, growth in the early 1990s was typically around 7% or 8%, but following the crisis, growth has been hovering around 3% to 4%. Indonesia is the only crisis-hit country in Asia not to have bounced back to its previous level of growth.

Poverty has remained high partly because Indonesia has been unable to create sufficient employment. The pressure on the labour market increased as a result of the crisis which caused more people to look for work. Between 1996 and 2002 the labour force participation rate rose from 58% to 68%. Many of these people will have been looking for work in agriculture which is still the major employer – absorbing 44% of the workforce in 2001, compared with 19% for industry and 37% for services. In agriculture, however, real wages have been stagnating and in 2002 were still below their levels in 1996.⁷ On the other hand formal sector wages in manufacturing and government service have been increasing.

Finding work of any kind, well paid or not, has become more difficult. Open unemployment which was 4.7% in 1997 was 8.1% in 2001 and 9.1% in 2002 – though it should be noted that the figure from 2001 onwards is based on a broader definition of unemployment which has had the effect of adding around two percentage points to the total. Indonesia's youth are in an even worse position: for people aged 15 to 24 unemployment is around 24% (22% for males and 28% for females). But open

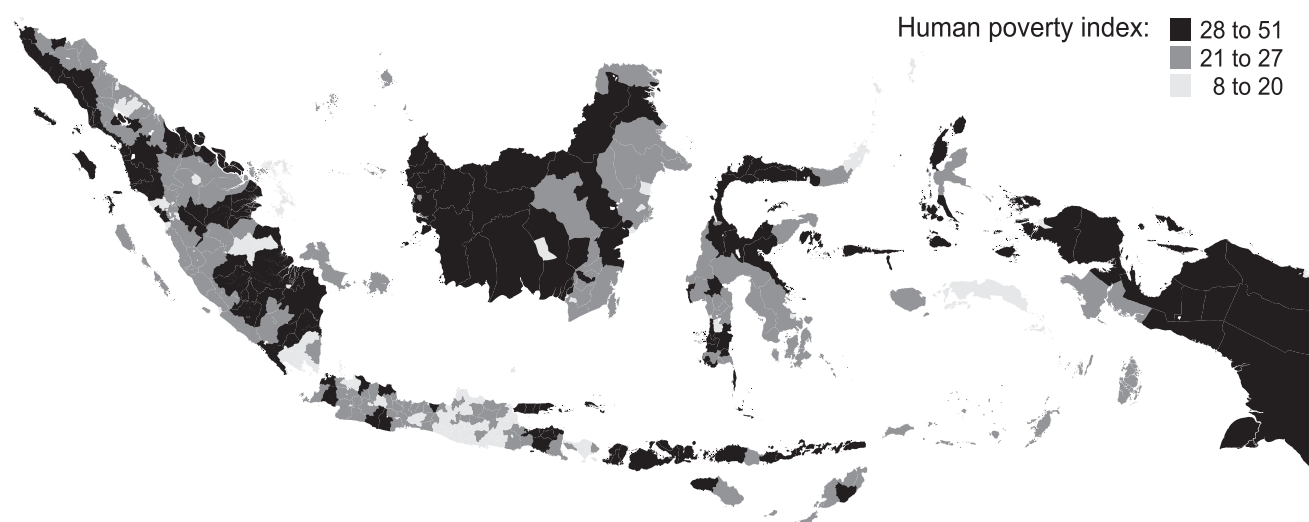
Figure 2.8 – HPI by province, 2002



Note: The diamond represents the average value for the province, while the line runs from the lowest to the highest values among the districts in that province.

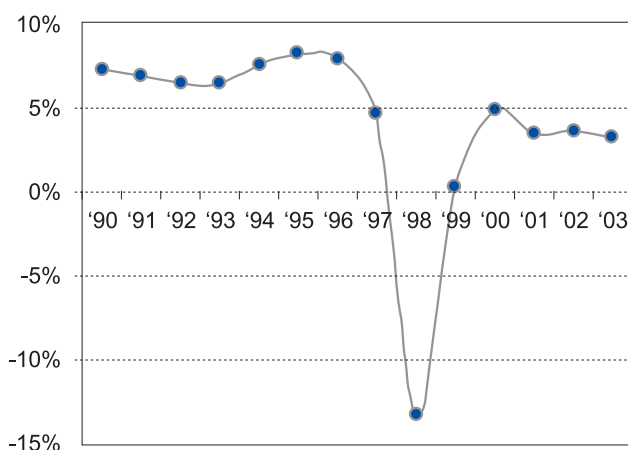
unemployment is only a part of the story. With no social security on which to fall back, the unemployed are often forced to take whatever work they can find, even if only unproductive activity that engages them for a few hours a day. Taking this into account, roughly one-third of the labour force is probably either unemployed or underemployed.

Figure 2.9 – Map of human poverty index by district, 2002



7 World Bank (2003c, p. 5).

Figure 2.10 – GDP growth, 1990-2003



Source: 2001 NHDR, updated from EIU.

Gender issues

In principle, women in Indonesia have the same rights as men. The Constitution declares that “all citizens have equal status before the law” and Indonesia has ratified the UN Convention to Eliminate Discrimination Against Women. Women have certainly made progress in terms of employment. Women’s labour force participation rate which was around 36.2% before the crisis then rose to 37.2% in 1999 and to 37.5% in 2002. Women’s share of non-agriculture wage employment increased from 28% in 1997 to 38% in 1998, though by 2002 the ratio had fallen back again to 28%. The rise in women’s labour force participation since the crisis is an indication that women now have to work more outside the home and contribute to the family income.

In education too, girls have seen an increase in opportunities. At the primary level, boys and girls now enrol in equal numbers, and at the junior secondary level there appear to be more girls than boys enrolled in school. At the senior secondary level too young women have made good progress, though they still marginally lag behind young men – the female to male ratio in net enrolment is 97%.

Women’s position has also improved in terms of health – as indicated by life expectancy. In 2002 life expectancy was 68 years for women, compared with 64 years for men. Nevertheless, one aspect of women’s health still gives great cause for concern – maternal mortality. The maternal mortality rate has certainly come down. Per 100,000 live births the rate was 450 in 1986, falling to 334 in 1995 and 307 in 2000. But this still means that

around 20,000 women die each year from causes related to childbirth. The rates are also dramatically higher in certain provinces: in 1995 they were 1,025 in Papua, 796 in Maluku and 686 in West Java.⁸ Almost all maternal deaths, the majority of which result from complications in pregnancy, are avoidable. This requires however that births are supervised by skilled personnel who can refer the woman to emergency obstetric care should complications arise. The proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel has increased steadily but by 2000 has still only reached 63% – an average that also disguises a marked disparity between rich and poor. Around 89% of richer women have their births supervised while for poor women the proportion is only 21%, an indication of a health divide which is considered in greater detail in Chapter 3 of this report.

Woman’s overall achievements in human development can be monitored using the gender-related development index (GDI). This index discounts each component of the HDI in proportion to the extent of inequality between men and women. If there is no inequality, the GDI will thus be identical to the HDI. In 2002 while the HDI was 65.8 the GDI was 59.2. This is because women’s advantages in life expectancy were being offset by a lower literacy rate (86% compared with 94% for men), fewer mean years of schooling (6.5 years compared with 7.6 years for men) and a smaller share of earned income (women contributed 38%, compared with 62% for men). In international terms Indonesia’s performance on GDI is average. Of the 144 countries for which a GDI can be calculated, Indonesia ranks 91, just one place higher than it does in the HDI among that same group of countries.

The regional distribution of the GDI follows a pattern similar to that of the HDI. For the leading districts, their GDI is very close to their HDI (Table 2.3). In the case of Ambon, for example, this is mainly because women there are making a larger contribution to earned income than men. Unlike the HDI, none of the Jakarta districts is in the top 10 (West Jakarta is number 12).

The data on life expectancy and literacy, however, give only a partial indication of woman’s position in relation to men. In Indonesia as in many other countries women face numerous social barriers, some more visible than others. The differences are evident in education. Thus, the subjects that women select at secondary and tertiary levels often reflect society’s expectations of their role. In the school year 2000/01 women made up only 18% of industrial engineering students and 29% of agriculture and forestry students – though they were 55% of students in business and management studies.⁹

Women are also under-represented in the civil service. Of the 3.9 million civil servants, 38% are women. However within the 1.8 million ordinary staff positions and the

⁸ Government of Indonesia (2004).

⁹ Government of Indonesia (2004).

Table 2.3 – Top 10 districts in GDI ranking, 2002

District	Life Expectancy (years)		Adult Literacy (%)		Mean year of schooling (years)		Contribution to earned income (%)		HDI	GDI
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male		
1 Kota Salatiga	72.1	68.1	89.2	97.5	8.9	10.2	47.5	52.5	72.8	72.5
2 Kota Ambon	73.9	70.0	98.5	99.3	10.1	10.6	50.6	49.4	72.7	71.3
3 Kota Pematang Siantar	72.8	68.9	98.2	99.3	9.9	10.7	36.2	63.8	74.1	70.4
4 Kota Denpasar	74.2	70.4	92.0	97.4	10.0	11.5	32.7	67.3	74.9	70.1
5 Kota Banda Aceh	70.5	66.5	98.5	99.4	10.9	11.4	42.0	58.0	71.9	69.7
6 Kab. Toba Samosir	68.8	64.9	93.2	99.2	8.4	9.9	52.0	48.0	69.5	69.3
7 Kota Kediri	70.6	66.6	92.9	97.9	8.8	9.9	42.8	57.2	66.1	69.1
8 Kota Yogyakarta	74.8	70.9	91.7	98.6	10.0	11.5	33.9	66.1	70.8	68.8
9 Kota Batam	71.6	67.7	98.8	99.3	10.9	10.9	40.1	59.9	73.2	68.6
10 Kab. Karo	72.9	69.0	96.0	99.4	8.3	9.1	39.9	60.1	70.9	68.5

160,000 higher 'structural' echelons, the proportions drop to 16%. Most of these women are employed instead in the 1.9 million 'functional' jobs, such as teachers and nurses (Figure 2.11).

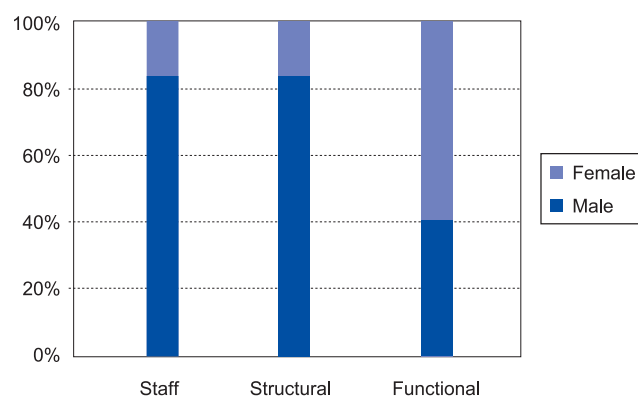
Women's lower status is also reflected in public life. Although Indonesia has a woman president, in the DPR in 2003 there were only 45 women among Indonesia's 462 MPs. This situation did not improve much after the 2004 election, despite the new election law passed in 2003 which indicated that 30% of candidates on party lists should be women. Clearly parties did not abide by this.

Women's empowerment generally is registered in the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM), which incorporates a series of indicators, including women's representation in parliament, the proportion of women in senior official managerial and technical staff positions at work, as well as women's non-agricultural wages compared with men's. The global human development report does not include Indonesia among the 70 countries for which it calculates a GEM. But taking the value calculated by BPS for 2002 of 0.546, this would rank Indonesia at 33 out of 71 – between Cyprus and Estonia. On this basis Indonesia also has a GEM rating superior to a number of other countries in the region, including the Philippines, Malaysia, Japan, Thailand, and the Republic of Korea. The GEM value for 2002 represents a slight increase over that calculated for 1999. Among the provinces, women in Central Sulawesi occupy the top position the GEM ranking in Central Sulawesi, largely because of non-agricultural work where they appear to be paid much the same as men. Last in the ranking is North Maluku primarily because there are no women in the provincial parliament. Bali is also low in the GEM ranking for the same reason.

A fragile democracy

The democratic system restored following the collapse of the previous regime has at least survived, and to some extent been strengthened. But many of the underlying weaknesses remain. On the electoral front, there have been some significant changes in procedure.

Previous elections have been based on a 'closed list' system where voters could only choose the party. This has the disadvantage that members feel more beholden to their party to get them on the list than to their electorate, so they have little incentive to cultivate their constituents. An opinion poll in April 2003, for example, found that only 2% of respondents could name a DPR member who represented their province.¹⁰ The outcome of the 2004 election may be somewhat better in that it is based on an open list system that gives voters for the DPR and DPRD an opportunity also to nominate a candidate. For the DPR the electoral districts were also somewhat smaller.

Figure 2.11 – Distribution of women in the civil service

Source: Statistik Indonesia (2002)

¹⁰ IFES (2003).

Table 2.4 – Proportion of total bribe payments by income level

Service provider	1 (poorest 20%)	2	3	4	5 (richest 20%)
State-owned hospital	28	18	17	21	17
Public school	9	15	18	28	30
District/Sub-district Office	10	16	12	35	26
Civic Registration Office	11	26	10	28	26
Traffic police	13	11	21	33	22
Police other than traffic police	4	7	8	8	73
Land Registration Agency	8	3	8	5	76
Electricity Company PLN	11	44	10	9	25

Source: Partnership for Governance Reform (2003)

Also on the positive side, the military no longer have reserved seats and, as noted earlier, parties are encouraged to ensure that 30% of their candidates are women though they did not do so in the 2004 elections. Another important development is that the President should be more accountable, and probably more powerful, since he or she is now directly chosen in a separate election.

However, there is little sign that political debate leading up to the elections is being based on a close consideration of the issues. As before, the political parties remain weak groupings of personalities and sectional interests. Instead of presenting well articulated programmes they are more likely to make general promises for improvement while trying to maximize their vote by adopting nationalist or populist positions. Moreover, the parties generally have few links, if any, to local communities; only one party has any form of organization at the local level. This lack of popular involvement is true even in Jakarta. A survey by the Institute for Civil Society in 2003 found that 66% of people living in the city have yet to participate in political activities, especially those concerned with policy-making. And only a tiny minority had been involved directly in political activity or in attending demonstrations.¹¹

Public confidence in the political system is further undermined by pervasive corruption. Transparency International in its 2003 Corruption Perceptions Index, rated Indonesia as the 12th most corrupt country in the world, and the third most corrupt in Asia after Bangladesh and Myanmar. Corruption is of course nothing new. The New Order administration created myriad informal systems of influence and perverse incentives. Unfortunately little progress has been made in fighting corruption – a consequence of powerful vested interests and weak law enforcement.¹² While this is often considered primarily as a tax on business, there is much less discussion of its impact on the poor. One study has

concluded, for example, that the poorest fifth of people using health centres had to pay bribes for about one-third of their visits. Indeed for state-owned hospitals the poorest pay 28% of all bribes.¹³ There are similar problems in the court systems where poor families who are unable to pay millions of rupiah in bribes to judges will inevitably struggle to achieve justice.

A radical decentralization

Another positive development in many respects has been the process of decentralization, which from 2001 dramatically reshaped Indonesia's system for financing and delivering public services, passing most of the authority to the districts and municipalities. Villages also enjoy greater autonomy and can raise funds and introduce new regulations – though since few villages have the capacity or resources to do this in practice most such activity takes place at the district level.

This process has been more successful than many people expected. Responsibility for some 2.2 million central civil servants was reassigned to the regions, along with control over 16,000 service facilities. All of this happened without any major breakdown in services. Nevertheless there have been a number of problems. One of the most critical has been the unclear distribution of functions between the central government and the regions. There have also been staffing issues: both provinces and districts have found that they have had to absorb more government workers than they could immediately make use of and as a result they have had to spend more than they would have wanted to on routine expenditures and less on service delivery. Meanwhile there is still a shortage of qualified staff: many of the officials now in place are there more because of influence peddling than because of merit.

¹¹ Jakarta Post (2003).

¹² World Bank (2003d).

¹³ PGR (2003).

Decentralization has also raised the prospect of further increases in inequality. The fiscal structure of decentralization has been designed largely to accommodate the demands of the better endowed regions – their ‘aspiration to inequality’. This structure essentially replicated the distribution of funds given by the centre to the districts prior to decentralization, but also allowed those regions well endowed with natural resources such as oil and gas to keep a share of the revenues.

This has also contributed to a proliferation of new regions. The current system makes it advantageous for better endowed areas to break off as new districts, partly because they qualify for the basic lump sum given to every region, but mainly because they then have less responsibility to share their resources with their neighbours. As noted earlier, this has been reflected in the dramatic rises and falls of HDI in split regions. In 1998 Indonesia had 319 regions. By January 1, 2004 there were 472 regions: 32 provinces and 440 districts (349 kabupaten, 91 kota).¹⁴ In addition many districts have introduced a large number of new taxes: by 2003 there were over 2,000 new regulations on local taxes.¹⁵

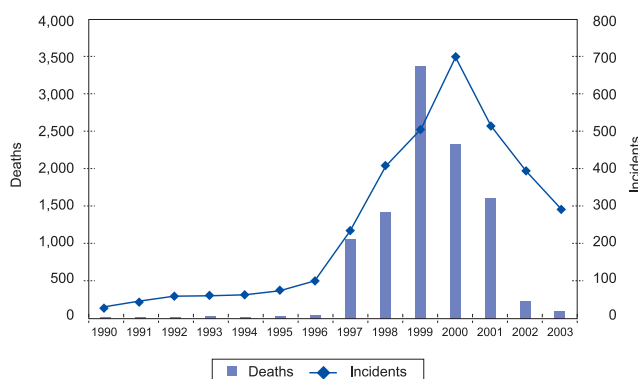
On the other hand there have also been many positive outcomes to decentralization. The Indonesia Rapid Decentralization Appraisal which was carried out by the Asia Foundation in 13 sites in 2002 confirmed some of the above problems but also found that there was a substantial increase in public participation.¹⁶ Although the decentralization laws make no specific allowance for public involvement, a number of civil society organizations and NGOs have themselves taken the initiative to engage in local planning issues and in monitoring standards of service delivery. Semarang, for example, has a City Forum and in Bandung, the *bupati* and technical staff have held weekly public dialogues with constituents.

A poll by *Kompas* newspaper in January 2003 found that 31% of respondents thought that public facilities were better than before the start of the decentralization policy, 34% said they were as good as before, 23% thought they were in the same bad condition as before while 10% thought they were worse, and 2% gave no opinion.¹⁷

Physical security

Another important aspect of human development that is not captured by the human development index is the state of physical security. Many parts of the country became very insecure from 1997 onwards, as a result of political and ethnic struggles. These can be separatist or ‘vertical’ disputes between the central government and regionally based groups demanding greater autonomy, as in Aceh and Papua. Others are ‘horizontal’ disputes,

Figure 2.12 – Non-separatist violence, 1990-2003



Source: UNSFIR Database

between different groups in the same region: the anti-Chinese riots in Jakarta in 1998; Muslim-Christian conflicts in Maluku and North Maluku, and in Poso in Central Sulawesi; and Madurese versus Dayak/Malay in West and Central Kalimantan.

Figure 2.12 shows the latest information on non-separatist violence. Overall there have been more than 3,600 incidents resulting in the loss of more than 10,700 lives, most of which took place over the period 1997-2001. Around 90% of these deaths have been from ethno-communal violence. Contrary to the common perception, however, this violence has been limited to a relatively small area of the country. Some 85% of the non-separatist deaths took place in just 15 districts that are inhabited by only 6.5% of the population. Though they usually involve violence between different ethnic or religious communities, at heart most of these are usually local struggles over natural and other resources. During the previous regime many such disputes were forcibly repressed by the military. But with the weakening of central authority and less control by the military, many long-standing grievances or ambitions started to surface. Even so, in the past two years both the number of incidents, and especially the number of deaths, have dropped steeply – in 2003 there were 295 incidents and 111 deaths compared to 523 incidents and 3,546 deaths in 1999. The social violence caused 1.3 million people to be internally displaced in 2001.

Violence has proved costly to Indonesia not just in terms of the loss of life. Regions involved in conflict have been hard hit economically since the violence has caused drops in investment and in production: in 2000, for example, the districts of Central Maluku and South East Maluku saw their regional GDPs fall by 22% and 40% respectively from the previous year. As noted earlier, a number of districts in these provinces experienced a drop in HDI. Ambon's HDI ranking declined from 3rd in 1999 to 29th in 2002. The poverty rate in Aceh has doubled from 14.7% in 1999 to 29.8% in 2002.

¹⁴ www.depdagri.go.id

¹⁵ World Bank (2003b, p. 38).

¹⁶ Abidin, A. (2002).

¹⁷ Kompas, January 6 2003.

In addition, the overall sense of physical security has also declined due to a rise in crimes not related to social violence, such as mugging, robbery and physical abuse or attacks. The chief of National Police has estimated that in Jakarta a crime occurs every 15 minutes.¹⁸ Indonesia is also affected by international events and terrorism. Bombings at different locations have claimed the lives of many innocent people.

Conclusion

Indonesia has made up some of the ground lost as a result of the financial crisis of 1997. But the recovery has been weaker than hoped for. In comparison with other countries in the region, Indonesia has also been faced with a complex set of political and social issues – demanding a systemic transformation of the Indonesian state and society. The response to this challenge has been narrow and partial. Even the process of decentralization, for example, was largely shaped by bureaucrats. And subsequent discussions have mostly taken place at a

technical level, between government, research institutes, donors and others.

The population as a whole has had little say. Public discussion, in the media and in local fora, has tended to take place afterwards – reacting to principles that have already been established elsewhere. What has been missing so far is a national public debate, not just about the way in which the country is to be administered but also over more fundamental questions about what it is to be a citizen of Indonesia – where do primary loyalties and responsibilities lie?

The purpose of this report is to move these fundamental issues once again to centre stage, and to explore what responsibilities Indonesians have to share to be considered part of one nation. In particular, it looks at what it would take to fulfil the rights of all Indonesians to health, education, adequate food and physical security – and to see what kind of investments would be needed at both national and local levels, and how these could be achieved.

¹⁸ The Jakarta Post, February 22, 2003.

Human Development as a civic right

Historically, Indonesia delivered public services through a centrally driven and top-down structure. In an era of democracy and decentralization, however, the government needs to take a different approach, not just delivering services in a decentralized fashion but also doing so in ways that fulfil people's development rights.

Indonesians welcome the right to vote, and the opportunity to make their voices heard – as they have shown during the electoral processes in 1999 and 2004. But the majority see few improvements in their standard of living. As the previous chapter has indicated, the population as a whole has at best regained the level of human development it achieved in 1996. Indonesians see that democracy has created many new choices, and added new layers of complexity to public life, but it does not appear to have brought obvious economic gains.

Is it reasonable to ask democracy to deliver more than freedom? That depends on how narrowly freedom is defined. Indonesia's poor have a number of channels through which they can express their opinions. But they lack opportunities to develop their capacities to the fullest extent. Education is a clear example. Although the majority of children enrol in primary school, fewer than half actually complete nine years of basic education – hampered both by the poverty of their families and by the poor conditions in schools. Indonesian children are also held back by poor nutrition: around one-quarter of children are undernourished, and as a result may never fulfil their full physical and mental potential. Millions are thus starting their lives in an era of political freedom but with their social and economic options seriously constrained.

Human development implies much more than this. It involves enhancing freedom in the broadest sense – by expanding people's choices, not just to select their political leaders but also to live full and healthy lives, and to acquire the knowledge and skills to maximize their capacities. Democracy in Indonesia should therefore be seen not as an end in itself but rather as a vehicle that carries the country to a new era of opportunities. Indeed if it does not do so there is a danger that many people will become disillusioned

with democracy and hanker for the false security of autocratic rule.

Who can ensure that the people of Indonesia reap the fruits of democracy and reach their full potential? The responsibility has to be shared very broadly. Everyone has a role to play, whether as individuals, or in families, or in communities. But they can also expect strong support from the state. Indeed they have a right to expect such support since they employ thousands of public servants and elect thousands more political representatives, at both central and local levels, who should be working on their behalf.

This may seem a new proposition – that citizens of Indonesia should demand from the state not just political rights but also social and economic rights. But the basic principles are far from novel. Previous governments may not have highlighted citizens' rights within Indonesia but they have certainly endorsed them in international fora. For example, Indonesia has ratified both the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC). And in 1998 a new democratic government adopted a National Action Plan on Human Rights that promised eventual ratification of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. Indonesia has also endorsed the UN's action to unite the political rights and the social and economic rights into one overall 'Right to Development' – as endorsed at the International Conference on Human Rights in Vienna in 1993.

Having taken on an obligation to fulfil the right to development what is the government expected to do? Since the right to development includes, for example, a statement that the state has to take all necessary measures to ensure the right to food, does this mean that the government has to feed everyone? In fact there can be degrees of support for this right. One suggestion categorizes these into four: to respect, to protect, to facilitate, and to fulfil.¹⁹

Respect – This merely requires the state not to interfere. Thus, as well as respecting people's political rights and the freedom of ideas, the Indonesian state should also respect property rights, for example, to enable people to provide for

¹⁹ ECOSOC (1998).

themselves. On this basis Indonesia has already taken major steps forward in a series of democratic reforms and the steady withdrawal of the military from economic activity.

Protect – At the same time the state also has to stop other people abusing the rights of their fellow citizens. Here Indonesia's performance has been less impressive since neither the legal system nor the police service offer adequate protection, especially for the poor. Widespread corruption also stands in the way of protection, and ensures that the rich have higher standards of security.

Facilitate – This is a more positive form of intervention – building infrastructure, say, or running public health campaigns, so as to improve people's capacity to raise their own standards of human development. Here Indonesia has been more effective: its highly centralized form of administration in the New Order ensured, for example, that roads and bridges were built, if not necessarily in the most appropriate places.

Fulfil – This is the most demanding option. It assumes that there are some essential items such as basic education and health care that many people would not be able to get from the market. And at times of crisis, the state could also step in to prevent people becoming destitute, to become the provider of last resort. Here too Indonesia has in the past performed quite well. Again, the military-style command structure was quite suitable for building health facilities. And during the economic crisis the Indonesian Government stepped in to protect people with a social safety net.

The rights-based approach

Given that Indonesia has to some extent fulfilled its citizen's economic and social rights what is different about considering services from the point of view not of needs but of rights – a 'rights-based approach'. Although there is no fixed definition of a rights-based approach, there is some consensus on the basic elements. These include:

1. *Equality* – Human rights are possessed equally by everyone, from the occupant of the presidential palace, to the most remote villager in Papua. This is very demanding, since it means achieving the same standards of service delivery across the country, but it has the advantage that it constantly focuses attention on those who have been marginalized and excluded.
2. *Indivisibility* – This asserts that one right cannot take precedence over any other. This again is a severe condition and in practice most people operate with a hierarchy of priorities – with the right to food near the top.
3. *Performance standards* – The 'rights approach' typically involves setting numerical targets and attempting to monitor their achievement. Most of the UN Conferences throughout the 1990s, for example, set specific targets many of which were subsequently consolidated as the

UN Millennium Development Goals.

4. *Participation* – The rights approach pays close attention not just to the fulfilment of rights but also to the way in which they are fulfilled. People should be able to participate fully in determining rights and setting priorities.
5. *Empowerment* – This is arguably one of the strongest features – at least at the rhetorical level. People who can demand rights feel in a more powerful position and are more assertive. Community groups, NGOs and others can use the language and rhetoric of rights to assert their position and to hold governments accountable.
6. *Accountability* – The strongest interpretation of human rights demands the possibility of legal action in pursuit of these rights. In practice, for economic and social rights the legal element is generally nominal since most countries lack corresponding legislation.²⁰ To some extent the rights approach involves acting 'as if' there really were legislation. The important thing is to establish mechanisms and institutions for accountability.

It might be argued, however, that despite Indonesia's commitment to the rights-based approach this is not the most appropriate time to try to deliver on it – given that the country is still recovering from one of the worst economic crises in its history, is undergoing a systemic transition and faces tight budgetary constraints. Meanwhile it also faces the hugely complex process of decentralizing much of its public administration to hundreds of districts across a vast archipelago.

In fact these are precisely the circumstances when the rights approach is particularly appropriate. First, because it offers a new impulse for human development. For seven years Indonesia has been focusing largely on survival, and on moving from a corrupt autocracy to a more modern and democratic, rules-based society. The rights approach offers a route to the future – carrying with it aspirations and a sense of entitlement. This is not just rhetorical; it is also a process of imagining – of enabling people to envisage the future.

Second, it encourages people to look beyond economic restructuring and to focus again on human development – and in particular on social sector spending. Rather than treating this as a residual item, to which funds can be allocated after the demands of debt servicing and other economic requirements, the rights approach demands that human development takes priority. For the social sector the starting point is not what was spent last year and what changes are feasible, but who is lacking what and how can their rights be fulfilled. What will it take to achieve 100% adult literacy, or clean drinking water for all? Who will need to act, and when, and how much will it cost?

²⁰ Nevertheless, in extremes it should be possible to take any government to court for a social or economic rights violation so severe that it can also be considered a violation of civil rights. Thus a government that failed to take adequate measures to protect its population against HIV/AIDS could be accused of violating the right to life.

Box 3.1 – Implications of the rights approach for policy makers

The rights approach has major implications for policy makers.²¹ When preparing a development strategy they must ensure that all stake-holders can participate actively and with sufficient information at all stages - formulation, implementation, and monitoring. Participation will necessarily be diverse in form and shape, but one of the most important requirements is to ensure that people have institutions (legal and otherwise) that enable them to become fully involved. For this purpose it is essential to guarantee civil and political rights - including the right to information, the right to freedom of expression, the right to free association, and the right to equal access to justice

While policy makers must aim to fulfil all rights completely they may not have the resources to do all this immediately - but instead deal with some rights progressively over a period of time. However they cannot use this as an excuse for relaxing their efforts. First they must take immediate action to fulfil any rights that are not seriously dependent on resource availability and re-focus priorities so as to divert resources from relatively non-essential uses to those that are essential for the fulfilment of rights.

Then for those rights that do have to be deferred because of resource constraints, they should establish a time-bound plan of action for progressive realization. The plan should include a set of immediate as well as final targets, based on indicators that can be used to monitor success and failure, along with institutions that can hold the state to account.

Indonesia's experience at meeting human development rights

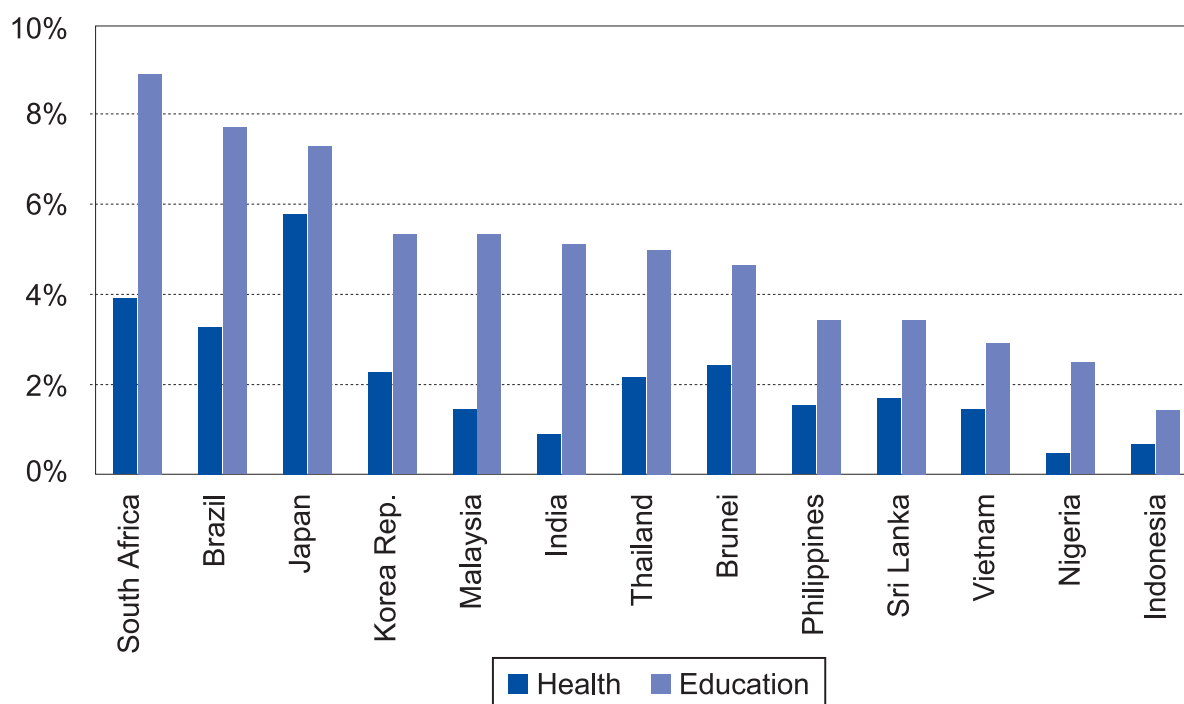
Prior to the recent crisis Indonesia was quite successful in fulfilling some basic rights – translating rapid economic growth into equally rapid human development. Starting from a low base in the mid-1960s, Indonesia steadily closed the human development gap with its South-East Asian neighbours. As a result, in terms of human development Indonesia's global ranking is similar to its ranking in terms of per capita income. This indicates that the country's human development performance is average for its current level of economic development: it is neither an under-achiever nor an over-achiever.

Progress so far has partly been the result of combining rapid economic growth with a slowdown in population growth, leading to a substantial rise in general living

standards and a marked reduction in poverty. This link between economic growth and poverty reduction was particularly strong because during the entire period of rapid growth there was no increase in inequality: income distribution remained fairly stable.

Economic growth translates into human development in a number of ways (Box 3.2). Some of this is through investment by the government in public services and some is the result of increased private expenditure on food, on housing or on health or education. In Indonesia the public spending component has been relatively low: as a proportion of GDP, public investment in these services has been substantially below the average for developing countries (Figure 3.1) – though one compensating factor was that much of this was concentrated on basic services, with a fair amount of emphasis on the provision of primary health care and primary education.

Figure 3.1 – Public expenditure on health and education, average 1996-2000 (% GDP)



Source: World Development Indicators

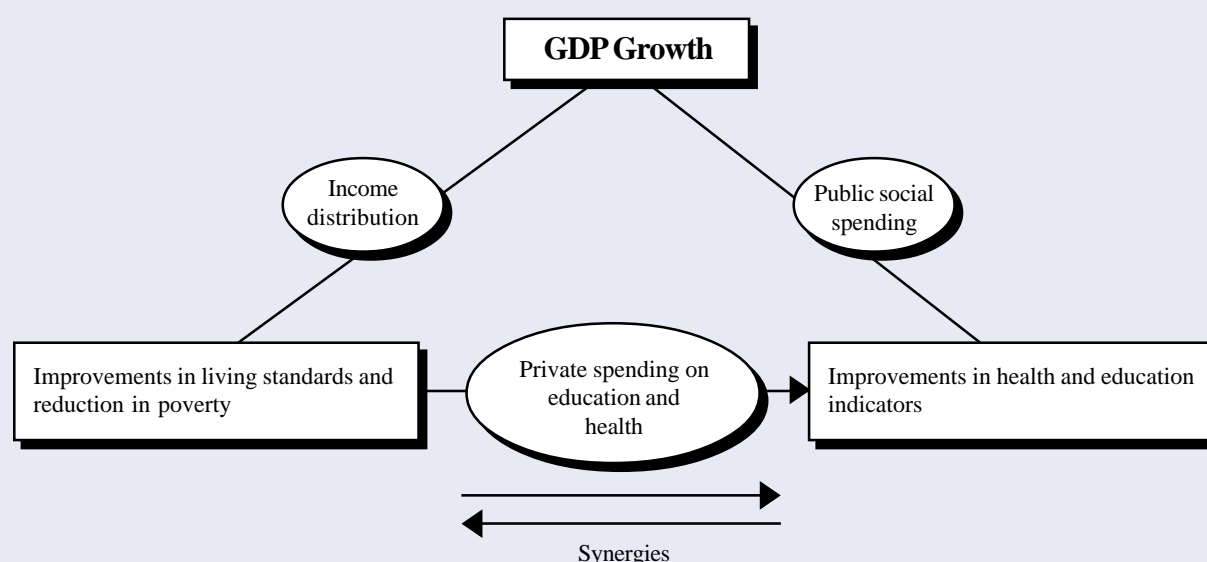
21 Osmani (2003).

Box 3.2 – Pathways to human development

There are various pathways to achieving human development, but some are more useful than others - depending on the particular circumstance of a country and its development priorities. Economic growth can lead to human development first by raising overall living standards and reducing poverty and second by increasing the government's capacity to spend more on education, health care and various poverty-focused programmes.

Neither of these links between growth and human development can be taken for granted. The former link will depend on the quality of growth in terms of income distribution. The latter link will depend on the government's spending priorities. Some high-growth countries like South Korea, where income distribution is reasonable and there has been adequate public expenditure, have been able to translate growth into human development while others, like Brazil, have had far less success in doing so because they have had a history of extreme income inequality coupled with a neglect of public health care. Even among countries that have achieved both rapid growth and human development, the relative importance of the above two links may vary, and with contrasting results. Some countries may rely too much on private rather than public expenditure on health care and education. This may improve aggregate levels of human development but it can also lead to greater inequality since the benefits from private expenditure will be less equally distributed than those from public expenditure. There is thus a need for an appropriate balance between the roles of the private and public sectors in providing social services. In Indonesia the balance in health care, for example, has swung too much towards private expenditure and needs to be corrected by increased public investment.

Besides these pathways, the various dimensions of human development have synergistic relationships, reinforcing one another's impact. It is important therefore to achieve appropriate combinations of public support in each of these areas. This is not easy. But the rights-based approach can help since it demands the active participation of the beneficiaries themselves. They tend to have a much better appreciation of how best to use limited resources in an optimal manner.



Civil society organizations can also play an important role, especially when public spending is inadequate. Indonesia's remarkable achievements in social development despite very low public expenditure can be attributed to contributions of a large number of community organizations.

This relatively low public expenditure has had to be offset by higher private spending. This is particularly evident in the case of health. In Indonesia private spending is responsible for around 80% of total health expenditure leaving the government responsible for only around 20%. Again, this is a much lower proportion than in many other developing countries (Table 3.1).

Private expenditure may appear to compensate for public expenditure. But it can only do so partly since it is much less equitable. While public expenditure on primary

health care is spread fairly equally across social classes, private expenditure is inevitably skewed towards the rich.²² In 2002 the poorest 20% were responsible for only 8% of private expenditure on primary care while the richest 20% were responsible for 39%. The contrast is even starker when it comes to hospital care (Table 3.2).

Given their lower standards of nutrition, housing and education, the poor are always likely to have lower health standards. But this over-reliance on private health providers tends to exacerbate the health divide between

²² Even in the public healthcare system, the poor are disadvantaged in terms of the quality of service they get and in terms of their ability to access hospital treatment. For more evidence of the rich-poor divide in health and educational achievements, see World Bank (2001), p. 69.

Table 3.1 – Patterns of public expenditure on health in selected countries

	As % of GDP	As % of Total Health Expenditure	Per capita annual (US\$)
Indonesia	0.6	20.0	7.6
Philippines	1.6	44.4	16.4
Thailand	1.9	31.7	35.5
Sri Lanka	1.7	48.6	14.1
All low & middle income countries	2.5	47.2	34.9
East Asian & Pacific	1.8	40.0	20.4

Notes: For Indonesia, the estimate is for 1996-1997. For other countries, the data are for years between 1995 and 1999.

Sources: Except for Indonesia, all estimates are derived from the World Bank's World Development Indicators. For Indonesia, the estimates are based on the World Bank's estimates of total public health expenditures along with Marzolf's (2002) estimates of the share of public expenditure in total health expenditure.

the rich and the poor. This divide is manifested in infant mortality rates which are three times higher for the poorest fifth of the population than for the richest fifth. While this divide is evident in most countries it also tends to be more marked in Indonesia than in other developing countries (Table 3.3).

It should be noted that a similar health divide is also evident between regions in Indonesia with the better off regions far outperforming the others in respect of health achievements. Infant mortality in West Lombok, for example, is more than four times higher than in many other districts.

Just as in health, there is also a divide in education, though this is less marked. Educational outcomes will depend to some extent on family influences, particularly on the education levels of parents and on the pressures for children to leave school early to start work. But public

expenditure also has a powerful impact. In the case of education, public expenditure tends to have a stronger equalizing effect in Indonesia since most primary and secondary-level education is in the public sector. As a result at the primary level there is now very little difference in enrolment between different income groups. However there are still marked differences at the secondary level. Thus, 72% of children in the richest fifth are enrolled in junior secondary as opposed to 50% of children in the poorest fifth of the population. Many also drop out before finishing primary education.²³ These differences are also reflected in literacy rates: in 2002, the male literacy rate of the poorest group was 87% as opposed to 98% for the richest group. The female literacy rate in 2002 was 76% for the poorest group and 94% for the richest group.

Underinvestment in education has been reflected in the declining quality of public education. Thus although there are many more public secondary schools than private secondary schools the results of state examinations find that among the top ten schools in each category there are only four public junior high schools and three public senior high schools. The quality of school education has been a cause for concern for some time – even before it was further undermined by the financial crisis.

To some extent the failings of public provision in health and education have been offset by the contribution of civil society organizations. Indonesia has a rich tradition of community involvement in social services. Religious associations in particular have been very active in running schools, health centres, and orphanages. As of 2001, one organization alone, Muhammadiyah, had 9,527 educational institutions of various types, and 3775 health and welfare-related centres.²⁴ Yayasan Indonesia Sejahtera is another community organization that operates a broad spectrum of community development programmes with a central focus on public health and related training and education.

Table 3.2 – Percentage shares of the poorest and richest 20% of population in private health spending and in total household expenditure

	Poorest quintile	Richest quintile
Spending directed to private health care providers*	6%	49%
Of which:		
Hospitals	2%	66%
Primary care	8%	39%
Total household expenditure**	12%	29%

Notes: The reference year for health expenditures is 1998 and that for total household expenditure is 2002. * Includes expenditures on drugs.

** Health and non-health expenditure

Sources: Susenas, 1998 and 2002; Knowles and Marzolf (2003) and Lanjouw et al (2001).

²³ LPEM-FEUI (2004, p. 2).

²⁴ For detailed breakdown, see UNSFIR (2001).

Table 3.3 – Infant mortality rate among the poorest and richest 20% of population, deaths per thousand live births

	Poorest quintile	Richest quintile
Indonesia (1997)	78	23
Philippines	49	21
Vietnam	43	17

Source: World Development Indicators, 2001 (Table 1.7, p. 11).

Many other *yayasans* (non-profit foundations) provide various welfare and social services across Indonesia.

Looking ahead

Bridging the health and education divides will need an increase in public expenditure – not just to reduce disparities but also to ensure overall progress. In the past Indonesia's progress in human development has been driven largely by economic growth. Growth will still be important but is unlikely to be as rapid, so it may not generate sufficient private income to compensate for low public spending. At the same time, Indonesia's people have higher aspirations: the democratic transition has raised their expectations that the state will ensure a basic minimum of social provision for all its citizens. Meeting these expectations cannot rely on Indonesia regaining its previous momentum of economic growth.

Boosting human development through public spending also makes sense because many of the resulting improvements in health and education are 'public goods', meaning that the benefits accrue not just to individuals but also reverberate throughout the society (Box 3.3). This is because many dimensions of human well-being reinforce one another and have positive spill-over effects on the nation as a whole. Better educated and healthier people are, for example, more productive and thus help raise national income. Moreover the reduction in levels of infectious disease for one group also reduces the risks for everyone else.

Private decisions on investment in health and education do not take this 'public good' aspect into account. Were it left entirely to individuals there would probably be less expenditures on these services than would be desirable from the point of view of the whole country.

Moreover, in Indonesia pro-poor social spending has an added 'public good' benefit since it can promote social

cohesion and national unity. The preliminary findings from UNSFIR's ongoing study on violent social conflict suggest that the widespread prevalence of such conflicts is likely to pose a serious problem to the country's social and economic progress. There is also evidence that social conflicts may have synergistic relationships with various dimensions of human development.

What level of human development should Indonesia be aiming for? Certainly it should look beyond the basic minimum. No country is so poor that it cannot satisfy the minimum needs of its population: the resources are there, what is needed is sufficient political will and social commitment.²⁵ But even after its financial crisis, Indonesia has certainly reached a stage where it can aspire to higher levels of human capabilities.²⁶ Indeed it already does so: Indonesia has, for example, redefined its education targets within the Millennium Development Goals to include not just primary but also lower secondary education.

These higher standards will be important not just for meeting people's basic rights to education but also for equipping Indonesia for the next stage of economic development. In industry, Indonesia continues to lag behind its South-East Asian neighbours: manufacturing still represents a much lower proportion of GDP than in countries like Thailand and Malaysia. In future Indonesia will need to enhance levels of education and skill to make better use of new technology and to diversify its exports. Viewed in this way, human development and economic growth clearly form a virtuous circle – in which better health and education are increasingly seen as a pre-condition for economic growth rather than simply an outcome of it.

This does however raise the danger of rising inequality. Even when economic growth regains its momentum, it may be difficult to keep income distribution stable, let alone improve it. Future economic growth may increasingly have to rely on activities that are more capital-intensive and skill-intensive which could leave many of the poor behind since most are employed as unskilled or semi-skilled labour in agriculture and the informal sector. Until growth picks up again it will be difficult to find work for the growing labour force. Income distribution was already becoming more skewed even during the rapid period of growth before the onset of the crisis. The same thing may happen again. As growth revives it will help reduce poverty to some extent but will now need to be supplemented with better safety nets for the most vulnerable sections of the population. The government will therefore need to place greater emphasis on public expenditure and take steps to deal with increases in inequality. This is the kind of shift implied by a rights-based approach.

²⁵ See Dasgupta (1993, p. 541).

²⁶ The ascending order of various human capabilities and "functioning" is discussed by Sen (1984).

Regional autonomy

The rights-based approach in Indonesia is particularly appropriate for supporting Indonesia's radical process of devolving autonomy to the regions. Currently the budgetary mechanisms for regional autonomy attempt to balance the needs of the poorer regions with the aspirations of those that are better endowed. A mechanism based on rights would be somewhat different – making no distinction between the residents of one district and another. Why should standards of basic health be higher in Yogyakarta than in Gorontalo? It may be easier to organize health services in Yogyakarta than in Gorontalo. But is this difference acceptable? There is after all no suggestion that because it is more difficult and more expensive per vote to hold elections in rural areas elections should therefore be confined to the cities. Why should the rights to vaccination or safe water be any different?

Indonesia's drive for decentralization originated in efforts to defuse secessionist impulses and bolster national integrity. But unless this process can be shown to fulfil the rights of all Indonesians decentralization will fall short of its potential for promoting national solidarity and integrity.

The rights approach also offers ways of rebuilding and reinvigorating community activity. Indeed it typically

has more to offer at lower levels of government. At the national level much of the debate about economic and social rights has to be pitched in a general way – outlining the broader picture and trying to build more democratic political institutions and stimulate economic growth.

At lower levels of government, however, the picture starts to change. Indeed it gets brighter the lower you go, with the prospect of a much more dynamic interaction between providers of services and users. Already there have been high-profile examples of local teachers, with the support of their pupils, protesting against the inadequacy of district education budgets, which in one case has forced the *bupati* out of office. But the participation of parents and other community leaders on school boards is also a promising indication of change.

The PRSP and the Millennium Development Goals

The rights approach also fits in with many of Indonesia's ongoing development initiatives and processes – notably the poverty reduction strategy paper (PRSP), and the efforts to meet the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The PRSP, for example, will put forward proposals in four broad areas: creating jobs and business opportunities; empowerment of the poor, capacity building for the poor; and social protection. This emphasis on the

Box 3.3 – Why the government should finance the social sector

Public investment in the social sector makes sense because there are large 'externalities'. Externalities are the consequences of economic activities that market systems do not fully take into account. Some externalities are negative, such as pollution from a factory that damages the health of surrounding communities. But others can be positive. For example, investment in education, health care and nutrition do not just have value for the individuals concerned but also have external benefits that spill over to the society as a whole through increased productivity that boosts national income. However, the effects can also work in the opposite direction. Thus, there is a circularity of causation in the relationship between poverty and health: poverty ? poor health and malnutrition ? low productivity ? low income ? poverty.

Education has similar externalities - helping to upgrade skills thus increases incomes and social mobility. Education also features in the health, nutrition and poverty nexus: a better educated person is more aware of the nutritional values of food, and of the importance of a healthy life-style and of hygiene. This is particularly important for women, whose level of education has a direct bearing on maternal and child health. At the same time health and nutritional factors also affect the educational performance of children.

Consider the historical growth in per capita income in developing countries between 1965 and 1995. One group consists of those where average per capita income in 1965 was below \$750 (in constant 1990 dollars adjusted for purchasing power parity). In these countries, if infant mortality rates were above 150 per 1,000 live births, incomes grew by an average of only 0.1% a year - while in those with rates of 100-150 they grew by an average of 1% a year and in those with rates below 100 they grew by an average of 3.7% a year.

There were similar differences in slightly richer countries. Among the group with initial incomes of \$750-1,500, those with infant mortality rates above 150 experienced negative growth averaging -0.7% a year, while those with rates between 100 and 150 averaged 1.1% annual growth and those with rates below 100 averaged 3.4% annual growth. Thus, even after accounting for initial incomes, countries with better health conditions have been more successful in achieving higher growth. Moreover, economic growth provides more resources to invest in education and health - and those investments contribute to higher growth.

A further important aspect of human development is physical security. Violence and armed conflict generally disrupt production, preventing people from earning their livelihoods, destroying their property and denying them access to health and education services. Lack of security also inhibits investment and thus reduces economic growth. But the effects also work the other way. Thus higher economic growth enables higher public spending for security. Education also plays a part since educated people demand better security and law and order. What is called the human capital approach to development emphasises the 'instrumental' value of these investments for the country. The human development (HD) paradigm, on the other hand, emphasises the 'intrinsic' value of socio-economic achievements - identifying them as ends in themselves, pointing to the non-economic value of education, health and nutrition and physical security - in the home and in the community. People who are healthier, better educated and physically secure are more able to articulate their positions and participate meaningfully in social and political activities. They can also between them accumulate 'social capital' which forms the basis for tolerance, peace and harmony that will be essential as Indonesia tried to consolidate its path to democracy.

poor is a clear recognition that development in Indonesia so far has not fulfilled the rights of the one-fifth of the population that are still below the national poverty line, and the focus on empowerment and social protection also clearly reflects a rights-based approach. Alongside the national PRSP there will be regional Poverty Reduction Committees at provincial and district levels.

The Millennium Development Goals are also based on the principle of fulfilling rights. These internationally agreed goals are to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger; achieve universal primary education; promote gender equality and empower women; reduce child mortality; improve maternal health; combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases; ensure environmental sustainability; and develop a global partnership for development.

However, given that the responsibility for many of these issues has now passed to the regions, and particularly to the districts, the MDGs must in future be at least partly a regional responsibility. Indonesia's first MDG progress report does not, however, offer data at the district level, only at the provincial level. As Indonesia's first human development report pointed out, on the basis of national trends over the period 1993-99 Indonesia is on track to achieve many of the MDGs by 2015, but these targets will be missed in many provinces and districts.

Minimum service standards

International goals such as the MDGs represent a commitment of the national government. How can these commitments be transferred to the local level? Formally, this can be achieved by defining the division of responsibilities between the various levels of government, the 'obligatory functions', and then defining the quality and quantity of services that they should offer: the 'minimum service standards'.

Law 22 of 1999 on decentralization gave the first indication of how the obligatory functions should be distributed, and this was subsequently clarified to some extent by a series of regulations. This produced a list of sectors, and authorities within those sectors, that are the responsibility of the central and provincial authorities; everything else is taken to be the responsibility of the districts. Even so, in many cases it is still unclear where responsibility lies. Thus although Law 22 establishes that

education is the responsibility of the districts the Ministry of National Education still reserves the right to control the content of textbooks.

To a degree the distribution of functions is up to the districts; at the request of the Ministry of Home Affairs (MoHA) each district has submitted a list of what they consider their functions to be. This has helped clarify some issues but many areas of ambiguity remain.

Even when the functions have been clarified, how can the central government be sure that districts are delivering the right quantity and quality of services – achieving 'minimum service standards'? These too are still in a state of flux. MoHA asked individual ministries to compile the standards for their own sectors. They replied with copies of their current operating standards. When these were subsequently compiled into one thick volume it became clear, however, that many of these were not really service standards but technical standards. This is an important distinction. In the case of childhood vaccinations, for example, the minimum service standard might be to vaccinate of 85% of children. Technical standards in this area, on the other hand, might specify the number of doses of each antigen (BCG, OPV, DPT, Measles and Hepatitis), and the ages at which they are to be administered.

However, the greatest weakness in Indonesia's development of minimum service standards is that there is no link between the service standards and any funding mechanism. While MoHA can set the standards the Ministry of Finance is not taking these into account when distributing funds to the regions. As a result these standards remain 'unfunded mandates'.

In an effort to move things forward several donor agencies have undertaken a model building exercise to see what meeting the standards for health and education would require at the local level. The conclusion seems to be that, as presently drafted, they are overambitious.²⁷ Those setting standards in each sector at the central or local level have an incentive to set them as high as possible, on the grounds that this might attract the most funds to their sectors or regions. No one is at present balancing standards against costs.

Adding up an ideal set of standards may appear to generate unrealistic expectations. But is it true that Indonesia cannot afford to fulfil its people's basic rights? This is the subject of the next chapter.

27 ADB (2003).

Counting the cost

Is it possible to meet the rights of all Indonesia's citizens? What would it take to ensure that everyone had enough to eat, received essential health care, had a good basic education and felt safe and secure?

Most people assume that fulfilling rights to health, to education, to food and to physical security is impractical – that the country cannot possibly offer any guarantees of this kind: Indonesia as a developing country, occupying 112th position in the global human development rankings, surely does not have sufficient resources to fulfil the basic rights for all its people – especially when it is still recovering from the effects of a severe economic crisis.

This may be the instinctive reaction, but is it correct? In fact, thus far there has been no comprehensive effort to count the cost of achieving these rights, for Indonesia or indeed for most other developing countries. This is partly because of doubts about the value of the exercise, on the pre-supposition that it would generate sums far beyond Indonesia's capacity to pay, but also because the costing exercise itself is difficult, requiring many assumptions both about needs and potential forms of fulfilment.

Nevertheless in very broad terms it should be possible to assess the scale of the challenge. The first question for any costing exercise is: which rights should be covered? Probably the most important are those to food, to basic health care, to basic education and to physical security. There are many others, which would help support these rights such as a right to decent work, along with all the other social and political rights. But if the country could ensure that everyone had achieved at least these four rights then millions of Indonesians would have much more secure and fulfilling lives.

A second issue to consider is who is to be provided for. Most families in Indonesia and elsewhere can look after themselves. The state has a role to play, but it does not have to provide everything. As the previous chapter pointed out, potential roles for the state when it comes to human development rights are to respect, to protect, to facilitate or to fulfil. Of these the most demanding is the

one to fulfil, but for many services this will be required only for the one-fifth of the Indonesian population who are poor.

The extent to which the state intervenes will also depend to some extent on national choices and priorities – on what are generally considered essential public goods. Thus, while providing physical security is a central responsibility of the state, most countries would also regard it as the job of the state to provide basic education, even for the non-poor. Most countries would also consider it a priority to ensure that the poor also had sufficient food by creating a final safety net below which no one should be allowed to fall.

In fact, Indonesia in the past has taken some responsibility for all four of these tasks – ensuring basic health care, basic education, sufficient food and physical security – though it has certainly not delivered either the quantity or quality of services to fulfil these rights completely. As noted in the previous chapter, this is primarily because it has spent too little on social services. The purpose of this chapter is to estimate just how much more Indonesia would need to invest so that its people achieved their most basic human development rights.

Costing the right to health

Standards of health in Indonesia have certainly improved in recent decades. One of the most sensitive indicators is infant mortality which between 1970 and 2003 fell from 118 deaths per thousand live births to 35. Over the same period life expectancy increased from 48 years to 66 years. These achievements are the outcome of many different factors: rising levels of prosperity; environmental improvements, particularly in water and sanitation; and the extension of more modern health facilities across the country.

While Indonesia's improvements are laudable, by international standards they are less impressive. Other countries have done far better. In Thailand, for example, the infant mortality rate is now down to 20 and in Malaysia it is only 6. Moreover, Indonesia's overall achievement in

reducing the infant mortality rate masks striking disparities. Thus while the infant mortality rate in Bali is only 14 in West Nusa Tenggara it is 74. There are also clear disparities between income groups: for 1997 when the average infant mortality rate was 52 the rate ranged from 23 for the richest fifth of the population to 78 for the poorest fifth.²⁸

Why are children dying? As the infant mortality rate comes down, higher proportion of deaths tend to take place earlier in children's lives when they are at their most vulnerable. The majority of infant deaths are from perinatal causes, acute respiratory infections, and diarrhoea. For adults too, the causes of death have changed, with fewer people dying from infectious disease and more from heart disease and cancer. Nevertheless there are still serious problems with infectious disease. Nearly half the population live in malaria endemic areas and each year there are around 30 million cases, a disproportionate number of whom are the poor living in the more remote areas. Tuberculosis also remains a major problem with more than half a million new cases each year. Over the past few years there have also been more deaths from dengue fever.

While women are affected by all these diseases, they are also vulnerable as a result of childbirth. While the maternal mortality rate has fallen somewhat – between 1995 and 2002 from 334 to 307 per 100,000 live births this still means that among the five million deliveries each year 20,000 women die. Again, there are serious disparities across the country. In Maluku the maternal mortality rate is 796 and in Papua it is 1,025. Moreover, here too Indonesia has made less progress than other countries. In Thailand the lifetime risk of a mother dying from causes related to childbirth is 1 in 1,100 while in Indonesia it is 1 in 65.²⁹

Sources of good health

Good health is the outcome of many different factors, including poverty, environmental circumstances, and matters of personal behaviour. In the case of poverty there is evidently a circular relationship: poor health and malnutrition tend to reduce productivity and income as well as requiring payments for medicines and treatment; at the same time poverty also worsens health. Of the environmental conditions probably the most important is access to safe water and sanitation. Although the situation has improved since the 1970s, there is still a long way to go to achieve universal coverage: currently only around 50% of the population have access to water from improved sources and in recent years progress seems to have slowed. Similarly only around 60% of people have access to improved sanitation, with the attendant risk of contaminating the groundwater; in Jakarta more than 80% of shallow wells are contaminated with faecal bacteria.

At the same time many people have health problems that are related to their lifestyle choices: more than 60% of adult males smoke and of these around half will die prematurely from their habit.³⁰

Health outcomes will also, of course, be affected by the availability of effective health services, particularly at the community level. At first glance, Indonesia seems well served – with a network of 7,100 health centres, the *puskesmas*, to which are linked 23,000 sub-centres, over 4,000 mobile clinics, and 19,000 village maternity rooms. In addition there are 240,000 *posyandu*, the monthly health service posts run by volunteers who promote maternal and child health. Indonesia was one of the first countries to concentrate on the kind of integrated services at the primary level that were recommended at the world conference on Health for All at Alma Ata in 1979.

Nowadays the public network is extensive and well distributed across the country, but the quality is often low. Although the buildings may be in place they may not be equipped with sufficient staff or supplies. Even for public health services, users have to pay fees. Though these cover only between 12% and 24% of the actual costs, they still represent substantial sums for poor people. In addition people often have to pay bribes even to get services to which they are entitled: one study has concluded, for example, that the poorest fifth of people using health centres had to pay bribes for about one-third of their visits.³¹

Faced with charges for services of indifferent quality most people opt for private care, in many cases from the same doctors and nurses who work in the public system since they are also allowed to have private practices. Indeed the dividing line between public and private care is often unclear since some public health facilities have been used to deliver private care.

As a result, of total health expenditure in Indonesia around 80% is paid for by private individuals or institutions and the rest by the state. This is a higher private share than in other countries. As a proportion of GDP, Indonesia spends around 2% on private health care, compared with 1% in Malaysia and 1.5% in Thailand. Meanwhile Indonesia's public expenditure on health has typically been less than 1% of GDP compared to an average of 2.5% in comparable ASEAN countries.

The most expensive component of private health expenditure is hospital care followed by outpatient care (Figure 4.1).³² Of these expenses, people generally have to pay around 70% 'out of pocket': they pay themselves because they are not covered by any form of health insurance such as Askes, which provides cover for civil servants, or Jamsostek, which provides cover for formal sector workers.

28 Gwatkin, et al (2000).

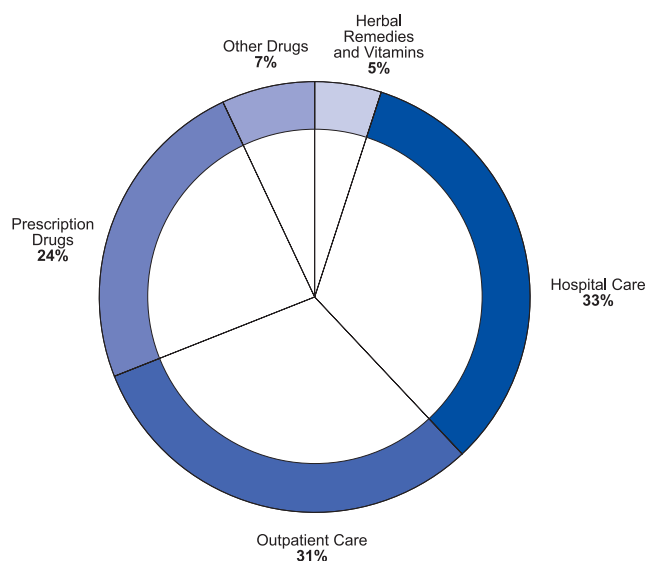
29 Government of Indonesia and UNICEF (2000).

30 Government of Indonesia (2004).

31 PGR (2002).

32 Marzolf (2002).

Figure 4.1 – Components of private health expenditure, 1997



Source: Marzolf (2002)

In absolute terms the rich spend more on health care than the poor. Although this is clearest in terms of expensive curative care in larger hospitals, it is also evident in the case of simpler primary care from doctors and clinics. The richest fifth of the population are responsible for 36% of spending on primary care compared with 10% by the poorest fifth. Nevertheless even the poor spend more of their health expenses with private providers than they do with public services.

Moreover, health expenses for the poor are likely to constitute a higher proportion of their income. One study finds that the poorest 10% of the population spend 2.3 times their monthly household expenditure on health a year, while the rich devote only one month of their expenditure.³³

Investing in health

What would it cost to guarantee the right to health? This is a difficult question to answer since investment could be made in many areas that would improve standards of health – whether in terms of infrastructure for water and sanitation, or of improving the environment to limit the risk of the spread of vector-borne diseases like malaria or dengue fever. Funds could also be productively invested in health education – both for preventive measures and also to encourage better ‘health-seeking behaviour’ so that

people made the right choices when faced with health problems. The Ministry of Health adopted this broader approach in 1999 when it presented its new vision: ‘Healthy Indonesia 2010’. This recognized that national health development was not the responsibility of the health sector alone and also put less emphasis on curative services and more on prevention and promotion – even within hospitals.

Then there is the choice of the standard of health to aim for. As the experience in richer countries has shown, the funds that could be spent specifically on health services are almost limitless, given the introduction of ever more advanced and expensive treatments. In these countries, and even in Indonesia with more of the population living longer, expectations of health care are higher, and the treatment for chronic diseases such as cancer from which a higher proportion of people die are also more expensive.

Probably the simplest approach is to concentrate on the health needs of the poor and to see how these might be financed. In addition to its general health services, Indonesia has already had a number of special schemes for the poor. There have also been two donor-funded health finance programmes, though only on a pilot basis, the TPC (targeted performance-based contracting) programme, for example, was funded by the World Bank and the Tabulin program was supported by UNICEF. Another more general scheme was the *Kartu Sehat*, the health card, which was supposed to be issued to the poor for them to present to service providers who would subsequently be reimbursed by the state. Although these cards were widely distributed their utilization have been relatively low for various reasons.

In addition, during the financial crisis, the social safety net had a health component, which involved small additional funds for health centres, midwives and hospitals. The government has also subsequently directed additional funds to the health sector to compensate the poor for the removal of fuel subsidies. In 2003, for example, this involved Rp. 950 billion to finance free referral in-patient care for the poor at district hospitals, as well as free generic drugs and free basic health care for the poor at health centres.

Clearly, however, something more permanent and systematic is needed to ensure basic health care for the poor. One indication of how much this might cost comes from the proposal for a national health insurance scheme which the government is at present considering with the assistance of ILO as part of an overall social security programme. This envisages central and local governments covering the premiums of the 38 million people considered poor. This is expected to cost up to Rp 9 trillion annually,

³³ Thabrany (2003).

assuming that 1.3 trillion would come from the central government and the remaining 5 to 8 trillion from provincial and district governments. For others most of the contributions would come from workers and employers. However the overall social security proposal faces strong resistance from employers who say that in the current business climate they cannot shoulder any additional costs.

A basic health package for the poor

Another indication of what more comprehensive health care for the poor would cost is available from estimates by the World Bank and the Government of what an effective comprehensive package for the poor should cost. This can then be compared with the current health budget to see what additional funds would be required.

The World Bank asked health officials at the local level what it would cost to deliver a basic package of health services and curative care and then applied these figures to an average model district of 600,000 people. The services included, for example, immunization, family planning, mother and child health care and curative care for diseases such as TB, malaria, and dengue fever. This suggested that in 2003 prices the package would cost Rp. 51,000 per person for the whole population, poor and non-poor, though specifically covering drugs expenditure for the poor, who were assumed to be 20% of the population (see the appendix to this chapter).

There has been considerable debate over the items included in this package and on the costing. The use of a model district also involves inevitable simplifications: the costs of delivering health care will differ widely across the country, and will be greater in the more remote areas. Nevertheless this estimate does offer a starting point and indicates a general order of magnitude, suggesting a total annual requirement of Rp 10.7 trillion.

How does this compare with current expenditure? Determining current health expenditure has been complicated by decentralization, since districts often include the costs of medical staff in their overall wages costs without identifying them as being in the health sector. Nevertheless an estimate by the Ministry of Finance indicates that in 2002 the total health expenditure by the provinces and districts, most of which can be assumed to be for primary care, was Rp. 5.4 trillion for routine expenditure and Rp. 2.3 trillion for development expenditure, making a overall total of Rp. 7.7 trillion. A similar sum emerges from investigations by the World

Bank which suggests that the total expenditure on primary care in 2002 was Rp. 8.4 trillion.³⁴

Subtracting this from the basic health package suggests the additional funds required for this package, to provide basic health care for all, with some extra drugs expenditure for the poor, would be around Rp. 2.3 trillion – not a very large amount. However this does not include hospital or in-patient care which represents a high proportion of current private health expenditure.

The Ministry of Health has therefore made a proposal for extra funds to cover this in the form of a 'poverty health grant' which would be distributed to districts on the basis of their individual needs, which in turn would depend to a large extent on their proportion of poor people.³⁵ This indicates that the additional requirement per poor person would be Rp.78,412 which would add up to Rp 2.9 trillion.³⁶

On this basis the total additional cost of ensuring basic health rights for the poor, including some tertiary care, would be around Rp. 5.2 trillion. This essentially refers to routine costs. However, there would certainly also need to be some additional capital investment in buildings and equipment.

The exact mechanism for achieving this better coverage can take many different forms. WHO, for example, has estimated what it will take to deliver services to the most remote areas (Box 4.1). But in overall terms for routine expenditure the sums required are not dauntingly large. They would bring annual government health expenditure from Rp. 14.0 trillion to Rp. 19.4 trillion, a 38% increase.

This exercise has been carried out primarily to give an indication of total costs. The situation would vary from district to district. Even the current expenditure per capita on health shows large variations. This is evident from Table 4.1 which shows data for a selection of districts. Current expenditure per capita varies from Rp. 176,068 in the small island of Satuna to Rp. 16,352 in the city of Manado. For illustrative purposes, this table also shows the effect of applying the model per capita expenditure to these districts plus the poverty health grant. This naturally produces a more even outcome. However, this modelling exercise is not meant to establish what would be a real appropriate figure for each district. The actual expenditure requirement would depend very much on local circumstances – on local costs, for example, on the remoteness of the area, and on local health needs and priorities.

34 The government's total health expenditure in 2002, according to World Bank estimates is Rp 12.6 trillion. However, this includes tertiary hospital care which is not itemized separately. Another World Bank paper, by Knowles and Marzolf indicates that over the period 1995/96 on average 67% of the budget went to primary care, which suggest around Rp. 8.4 trillion for 2002.

35 Setiadi and Marzolf (2001).

36 This is made up of Rp. 50,323 for tertiary care plus Rp. 19,603 to fund the special needs of disadvantaged regions and Rp. 8,486 to enable the poor to have better access public health facilities including to pre-and post-natal care and immunization.

Table 4.1 – Current and modelled per capita primary health expenditure for selected districts

	Current expenditure Rp. per capita			Poverty rate (%)	Modeled expenditure
District	Routine	Development	Total		Rp. per capita
Kota Manado	16,060	292	16,352	5	81,649
Central Lampung	16,124	651	16,775	20	89,138
Kota Pekanbaru	12,097	5,770	17,867	6	82,339
Sampang	10,159	8,414	18,572	42	100,113
West Lombok	11,350	7,828	19,178	33	95,755
Padang	17,838	3,154	20,992	4	81,332
East Lombok	13,958	7,300	21,259	30	93,974
Ponorogo	19,084	4,541	23,625	21	89,565
Central Lombok	14,260	9,472	23,733	29	93,828
East Tanjung Jabung	19,694	7,860	27,554	12	85,056
Bondowoso	28,351	1,458	29,809	26	92,077
Situbondo	21,038	8,822	29,860	24	91,020
Toba Samosir	26,252	4,576	30,829	24	91,181
Enrekang	23,868	7,678	31,546	22	90,169
Kota Yogyakarta	29,330	2,934	32,264	15	86,395
Tana Toraja	23,817	8,847	32,664	19	88,569
Karang Asem	27,548	5,759	33,306	9	83,391
Kota Batam	12,007	21,919	33,926	5	81,353
Sambas	24,611	11,300	35,910	14	85,962
Barito Kuala	25,869	10,376	36,245	10	84,120
Sumenep	18,213	21,686	39,900	31	94,729
Banda Aceh	26,530	13,979	40,509	10	84,246
Kota Palangka Raya	33,551	10,190	43,741	6	82,228
Belitung	40,330	7,460	47,790	14	86,340
Kepulauan Riau	25,327	28,632	53,959	14	86,279
DKI Jakarta	27,821	29,866	57,686	3	80,809
Tabanan	54,901	7,089	61,990	8	83,295
Jayawijaya	59,901	7,395	67,297	46	102,101
Natuna	84,355	91,713	176,068	6	82,082

Note: Districts are listed in order of increasing current expenditure. Modelled expenditure consists of Rp. 51,000 per capita, plus the poverty health grant which depends partly on the poverty rate.

Source: Current expenditure from data provided by the Ministry of Finance.

The national figure would certainly represent an increase in the health budget, but it is far smaller than some global estimates. The report to WHO of the Commission on Macro Economics and Health, for example, concluded that the minimum expenditure needed for essential interventions in developing countries should be at least \$30 (Rp. 250,000) per person per year.³⁷ This includes, for example, the cost of the management of HIV/AIDS, which is not yet a significant problem in Indonesia. For Indonesia this would imply a total health budget of Rp 53 trillion.³⁸ Clearly Indonesia can make significant progress with a far smaller investment.

Costing the right to education

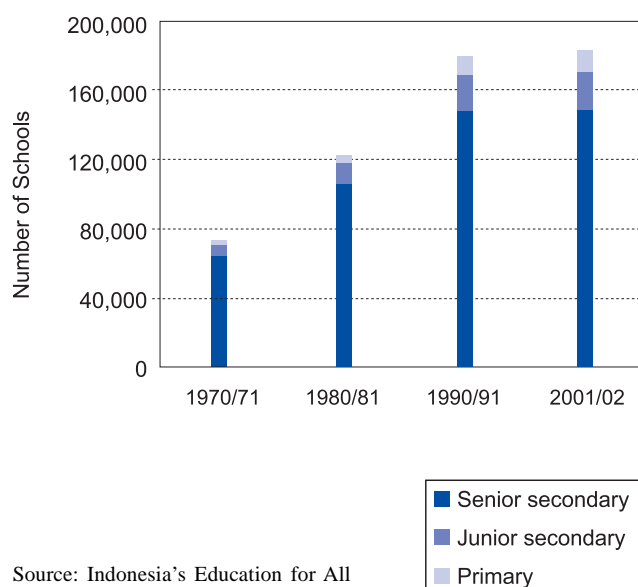
The government of Indonesia has clearly recognized the right to education. During the 1970s and 1980s it more than doubled the number of primary and junior secondary schools – from 70,000 to 169,000 (Figure 4.2). Then from 1994 it introduced a Nine Years' Compulsory Basic Education Programme – six years at primary school and three years at junior secondary school.

Indonesia has already moved some way towards achieving this goal. By 2002, net enrolment in primary schools was up to 93% (Figure 4.3)³⁹, while the gross enrolment ratio was around 112%, indicating that a large number of under- or over-age children were also attending primary school. Moreover this enrolment is spread relatively evenly across social groups, with no significant differences between income groups, between urban and rural areas or between boys and girls. However there are

Box 4.1 – Extending health facilities to remote areas

WHO has estimated what it might cost to extend health services to 49 of Indonesia's most remote areas. Thus in Paniai district in Papua, on the basis of difficulty of access, all the villages were considered remote or very remote, while in Central Halmahera district in North Maluku just over half were considered remote or very remote. The report then compared the staffing ratios in these districts with those envisaged in the long-term vision document *Healthy Indonesia 2010*. Thus the target for the number of people per doctors is 2,500, while the current number nationally is 7,972 and in the remote districts it is 16,420. However WHO concluded that the most practical level for the remote districts would be around 12,000. Achieving this coverage will mean providing for doctors, not just additional incentive payments for a more remote posting but also facilities for their families and ensuring good working conditions. Similar considerations apply to nurses and health-centre midwives and village midwives. This suggests that the total costs for ensuring adequate care for these 49 districts would be an additional Rp. 1.4 trillion.

Figure 4.2 – Number of schools, 1970-2000



disparities between provinces: in Gorontalo and Papua, for example, net enrolment is only around 80%.

More children are also going to secondary school. By 2002 enrolment at junior secondary level had reached 62%. In this case, however, there were far greater disparities. Again there were no significant differences between boys and girls. But enrolment was much lower in rural areas (54%) than in urban areas (72%). And there were even more striking disparities across income groups. While 72% of children in the richest fifth of the population were enrolled, for those in the poorest fifth the proportion was only 50%. As with primary enrolment, some provinces fell far below the average, with Papua again the lowest at around 40%.

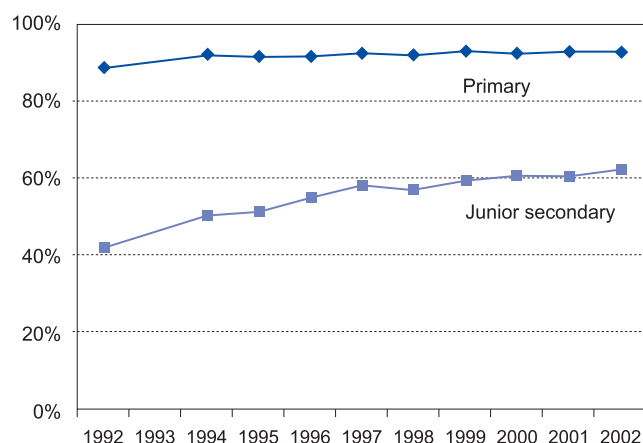
Although the vast majority of children now enrol in school only around half complete nine years of education. Around 18% drop out before completing primary school, while the rest either do not enter, or do not complete, junior secondary school. Many parents will take their children out of school because of the pressures of poverty; either they cannot afford to pay the various incidental fees and the cost of uniforms and books, or they need their children to work at home or in the labour force. But another major concern is the quality of the education their children receive. At present this is often very low. Many school buildings are now in a decrepit state with very little equipment, and textbooks are scarce (Box 4.2). In primary schools around half of teachers are underqualified. In these circumstances, parents may well conclude that their children are gaining relatively little from

37 Sachs (2001).

38 Central expenditure on health in 2002, including family planning, was Rp 5.2 trillion on development expenditure and Rp 1.0 trillion on routine expenditure.

39 Enrolment data differ according to the source. The date given here for both primary and secondary education come from the Ministry of Education, the Susenas household survey says that in 2002 net primary enrolment is 97% and net junior secondary enrolment is 69%.

Figure 4.3 – Net enrolment in primary and junior secondary education, 1992-2002



Source: Government of Indonesia (2004)

school and would be better off at home or in the workforce.

The poor standard of education is evident not just in the quality of inputs, it also shows in results. In the early 1990s the International Association for Education carried out tests on primary grade 4 students' reading ability. Indonesian children received a score of 52, behind Hong Kong (76), Singapore (74), Thailand (65) and the Philippines (53).

Investment in education

Indonesia's poor performance by international standards reflects a low level of investment. Indonesia spends around 1.5% of GDP on education – a proportion far lower than that in many Asian countries. The amount spent is relatively low even as a proportion of the government budget: in 2000/01 Indonesia's proportion, at 10%, was significantly lower than Thailand's 30%, Myanmar's 18%, Bangladesh's 16%, Nepal's 14%, and Bhutan's 13%.⁴⁰

How much more would Indonesia need to spend to fulfil the right to education? Here the approach to costing has to be somewhat different to that of health, where the aim was to target resources specifically at the basic health and the poor. For education, it is probably appropriate to aim more broadly. One can, for example, include scholarships for poor children, but probably the best way to increase their enrolment is to improve the quality of education for all children.

Moreover, this investment can be concentrated in state schools which educate the majority of children – 84% at primary level and 63% at junior secondary level. The proportion of children going to private schools may seem high by international standards, but most children being privately educated in Indonesia are attending the Islamic

schools, the *madrasah*, where the fees are very low – subsidized by religious foundations along with some irregular and small support from the government.⁴¹ In the *madrasah* too, the quality of education is generally quite low.

The best estimates of what it would cost to fulfil the rights to basic education have been produced by the Ministry of National Education in its National Plan of Action: *Indonesia's Education for All*. This report estimates what it would take to fulfil the Dakar Declaration of 2000 on achieving Education for All – offering equal access for all boys and girls to high quality education.

This report uses a mixture of methods to arrive at an overall per capita requirement. It starts by looking at the best performing schools, as reflected in the test scores of the National Evaluation, *Ujian Akhir Nasional* (UAN), and finds that the main reason they do better than other schools is that they spend more on books and teaching materials while also making some supplementary payments to teachers. Then the report factors in a number of other costs, including essential renovations and the cost of ensuring that all teachers are qualified, as well as the cost of eliminating all fees. Finally it also suggests scholarship grants for the 18% of pupils who are poor – at a level of around Rp, 290,000 per year – which would at least partially compensate parents for the loss of their children's earnings.⁴²

The result at the primary level is an annual 'ideal' cost of Rp 1.17 million per pupil and at junior secondary level of Rp. 2.28 million per pupil. The rate is higher for junior secondary schools both because they have higher equipment costs and also because they will have more construction costs; while most of the required primary schools are already in place, even if requiring renovation, increasing junior secondary enrolment will certainly mean building more schools.

These estimates are necessarily very broad. They do not, for example, take into account of variations in costs across districts. And they are based on phasing in these improvements over different time periods. This means for primary schools achieving 100% net primary enrolment by 2008/9 and for secondary enrolment reaching 95% net (100% gross) enrolment by 2008, and net enrolment of 100% by 2015 to coincide with the target year for the MDGs.

However, to give an impression of the scale of investment it is easier to consider what it would cost if all these children were to be enrolled tomorrow in schools of sufficient quality. In the case of primary schools, there are currently 26 million children aged between 7 and 12. The total cost of achieving the education for all targets for these children would be Rp 31 trillion per year. This includes some renovation costs, but is essentially routine

⁴⁰ UNESCO (2003).

⁴¹ Jalal (2000).

⁴² The Ministry of National Education in a separate project on cost of education estimated the lost earnings at around Rp. 1.1 million for primary and Rp. 1.9 million for junior high.

expenditure. In practice, it would probably also be necessary to build some new schools and replace others (Box 4.2).

In the case of junior secondary schools, there are 12 million children aged between 13 and 15. Of these, 3.7 million are not going to school. To build sufficient schools to enrol them, at the current cost per pupil, would require an additional Rp. 6.7 trillion per year. But to provide junior secondary education of a sufficient quality for all children in that age group would cost around Rp 27 trillion.

How does this compare with current education expenditure? As with health, decentralizing responsibility to districts makes it more difficult to tell what is being spent. Although districts provide details of development expenditure on education they do not always itemize the routine costs which would include teachers' salaries. Data from the Ministry of Finance suggest, however, that for 2002 the districts in total spent Rp 31.9 trillion on education (Rp. 27.8 trillion routine, and Rp 4.1 trillion development).⁴³ Of this, BAPPENAS and MoNE, estimate that 60% is for primary and junior secondary education, suggesting a total district spending of Rp 19.1 trillion. In addition to this the central government also has an education budget which for 2004 was R. 21.8 trillion. Of this around Rp. 14.3 trillion is for primary and junior secondary education. So the total spending on primary and junior secondary education, central and regional, comes to Rp 33 trillion.

To fulfil the right to basic education would thus require an increase from Rp. 33 trillion to Rp 58 trillion. The overall cost in real terms is likely to come down, since in the early years it will reflect additional construction costs for secondary schools. Moreover, as birth rates fall so the number of children will decline. However in broad terms this is the kind of investment that would be needed.

This may seem a dramatic requirement but in fact Indonesia's Constitution, as amended in 2002, already commits the country to spending more than this. Article 31 (4) says: "The states shall prioritize the budget for education to a minimum of 20% of the State Budget and of the Regional Budgets to fulfil the needs of implementation of National Education". In 2002, when the proportion was 13.2% this would imply an increase from Rp 47.8 trillion to Rp 72.5 trillion which, though it includes upper-secondary and tertiary education, should also easily cover the needs for improved basic education.⁴⁴

Poverty and the right to food

One of the most fundamental requirements of life is food – or what is now more generally described as 'food security', which at the household level simply means having secure access at all times to sufficient food.

Food security can be considered from four key aspects: sufficiency, access, security, and time. Sufficiency means having enough food of an adequate quality for leading a healthy life. Access means being able to get that food, usually either by growing it or buying it. Security means being able to rely on that access. And time refers to the possibility of loss of access for certain parts of the year, typically just before harvests.

On this basis, how many people in Indonesia are 'food insecure'? The simplest answer is: everyone who is below the poverty line. Someone is considered below this line if they do not have sufficient resources to consume 2,100 calories per day and also to purchase essential non-food items such as clothing and shelter. In Indonesia in 2002 the basic minimum food requirement was estimated to

Box 4.2 – Over 30% of elementary schools are falling apart

Director General for Elementary Education at the Ministry of Education, Indradjati Sidi, revealed that more than 30% of elementary schools were either ruined or in a state of irreversible decay. He admitted that the decrepit state of the buildings was just one of the many problems plaguing the education system in the country.

Indradjati said that a large percentage of state elementary schools could no longer be used safely and all school activities had to be conducted outside because the government had not allocated the necessary funds to rebuild them. He said the buildings could no longer be used, partly because of old age as they were built around 30 years ago, and partly because many were damaged in conflict zones like Aceh, Sulawesi and Maluku.

The government had allocated Rp. 625 billion in the 2003 state budget to rehabilitate the schools but the amount was far from enough so they would have to prioritize schools that could no longer be used and were located in densely-populated areas.

The government has said it would raise the education budget to 20% of the national budget as stipulated by the amended Constitution, but it has only allocated about one-fifth of that. Hundreds of thousands of students in Aceh, Maluku and Central Sulawesi, have been studying in tents, mosques and churches since many of the schools have been razed during the various conflicts in those areas.

According to Ki Supriyoko, a professor at the Sarjanawiyata Tamansiswa University in Yogyakarta, the poor condition of the school buildings was just one component of the pathetic state of education in the country. The situation is not new because the country has had these problems since independence in 1945, he said: "The real problem is that the nation has failed to devote serious attention to developing education." Supriyoko said further that the state elementary schools had been also running short of educational facilities and teaching staff. "Many of the teachers in elementary school are not permanent and many local administrations have deployed security personnel to teach students in elementary and high schools in remote areas," he said.

Extracted from an article by Yuli Tri Suwarni, in the Jakarta Post, March 02, 2004

⁴³ This covered 93% of the population, since data were not available from a number of districts including Aceh.

⁴⁴ Law 20 of 2003 in paragraph 49 further stipulates that the 20% excludes consideration of teachers' salaries. This has created some confusion since it would require huge development expenditure on education. It seems doubtful that this stipulation will be put into practice.

cost Rp. 82,328 per month while the non-food items are priced at Rp. 28,957,⁴⁵ so the total poverty line was fixed at Rp. 111,285 per month. Since both food and non-food items are considered essential, effectively everyone who falls below this poverty line is food insecure – 18% of the population, 38 million people.

However, this probably understates the extent of the problem. In addition a further 30% of the population are thought to hover around the poverty line. Indeed, according to Indonesia's MDG report, two-thirds of the population are consuming less than 2,100 calories per day.⁴⁶

In Indonesia food insecurity is not due to a lack of availability: there is generally no shortage of food or more specifically rice, which is the staple food for 95% of the population. Though Indonesia does not grow enough rice to feed the whole population it can obtain the rest from imports. During the 1980s Indonesia was at times self-sufficient in rice over the whole year, but over the period 1988-2002 it has on average imported 10% of national needs.

The question is whether people can afford to buy that rice. The crucial importance of this issue was demonstrated dramatically during the economic crisis in 1997 and 1998 when, following the collapse of the rupiah, inflation rocketed and the price of rice doubled, pushing it out of the reach of most of the poor and leading eventually to food riots. But even during normal times the price of rice is a sensitive issue and effectively determines whether or not people are classified as poor. The rise in food prices in 1998 was one of the main reasons why the poverty rate went up; and its fall over the past three years has also been one of the main contributors to the subsequent reduction in poverty.

The price of rice will determine how much people can eat. But food insecurity within households is not just a matter of having insufficient quantities of food. There are also problems with quality. Many families, either because of poverty or because of a lack of knowledge of nutrition, are not consuming sufficient protein or vegetables or other items that provide vital micronutrients such as vitamins and iron. In Indonesia around half of pregnant women are anaemic.

At greatest risk of malnutrition, however, are infants and young children – more than one-quarter of whom are malnourished, weighing less than they should do for their age. In many cases children are malnourished even in households that have sufficient food available, especially for the small amounts that young children need. Some of these children will have been born with low birthweight, which can be a reflection of the malnutrition of their mothers during pregnancy. But others become

malnourished in the first two years of life because they are not being given food that is sufficiently dense in nutrients, or are not being fed frequently enough.

In these circumstances the response to food insecurity has to be very wide ranging. There will clearly need to be more attention to educating families about nutrition and especially about the needs of young children. And although food can always be imported it is also important to sustain national food production and marketing since this will increase the quantity of food available in local markets as well as boosting the income of poor farmers.

However, the one of the most effective ways of boosting food security will be to tackle poverty. In the longer term this will require a broad range of measures, such as those envisaged in the Poverty Reduction Strategy Programme – promoting rural development, for example, and extending micro-credit schemes. But these measures need to be supplemented with immediate action to assist those who are poor today.

The most direct way to eliminate poverty now would be to give the poor sufficient funds to lift them above the poverty line. How much would it cost to do this? This can be estimated in a very simple way using the 'poverty gap'. This represents how far the average poor person lies below the poverty line.⁴⁷ The gap for 2002 is estimated at Rp. 220,850 per poor person per year, so multiplying this by the number of poor people, which is 38 million, gives a required annual transfer to the poor of Rp. 8.4 trillion. This would enable the poor to have sufficient funds to purchase both food and essential non-food items.

However, some of the main components of the non-food poverty are the costs of basic health care and basic education. The costs of these, as calculated in previous sections of this chapter, would need to be subtracted from any transfer based on the total poverty line in order to avoid double counting.

One way of accounting for this would be to provide only for those people who fall below the food poverty line. The transfer can be based on the gap between the food poverty line (Rp. 82,328 per person per month) and the average expenditure of the poor who are below that line. In this case the estimated total annual cost of food is Rp. 1.09 trillion. Table 4.2 gives the provincial level breakdown of the food insecurity index based on food-poverty gap and the estimated cost of food security.⁴⁸

Forms of intervention

Of course the mechanisms for achieving food security need not involve giving funds to the poor. An alternative would be to lower the price of rice. The government could, for example, try to reduce the local price by reducing production costs by subsidizing farmers' inputs, such as

45 This is the national average. The figures are different for urban and rural areas.

46 According to Susenas, average per capita calorie consumption in Indonesia was 1,849 in 1999 and 1,987 in 2002.

47 Poverty gap (P1) = $(1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - y_p)/y_p$. Where n is total population, g is total of poor people, y_p is the expenditure of the poor, y_p is the poverty line. So multiplying P1 by total population will give us $\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - y_p)$ and then multiplying it again by poverty line will lead us to $\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - y_p) y_p$ which is what it would take to bring the poor above the poverty line.

48 The food insecurity index is derived as $100 \times ((\text{the food poverty line} - \text{the total expenditure below the food poverty line}) / \text{food poverty line}) / \text{total population}$.

Table 4.2 – Provincial breakdown of food insecurity index and food security cost

Province	Population	Total Headcount index	Food Headcount index	Food Insecurity Index	Estimated cost for food security per year (Rp.)
North Sumatera	11,891,742	15.84	4.48	0.59	66,570,184,800
West Sumatera	4,289,647	11.57	2.99	0.31	14,454,688,140
Riau	5,307,863	13.61	2.94	0.33	19,710,608,232
Jambi	2,479,469	13.18	5.11	0.82	21,462,109,944
South Sumatera	7,170,327	22.32	4.61	0.72	51,056,292,048
Bengkulu	1,640,597	22.70	4.77	0.62	9,873,598,248
Lampung	6,862,338	24.05	5.55	0.74	43,087,858,752
Bangka Belitung	913,868	11.62	3.12	0.29	3,240,000,204
DKI Jakarta	8,379,069	3.42	0.07	0.00	438,595,440
West Java	36,914,883	13.38	2.44	0.25	89,487,132,696
Central Java	31,691,866	23.06	5.88	0.71	217,321,705,992
D I Yogyakarta	3,156,229	20.14	5.19	0.77	24,451,374,240
East Java	35,148,579	21.91	5.73	0.72	248,791,269,144
Banten	8,529,799	9.22	1.14	0.13	11,761,240,068
Bali	3,216,881	6.89	0.64	0.05	1,555,227,144
West Nusa Tenggara	4,127,519	27.76	9.01	1.06	42,757,703,952
East Nusa Tenggara	3,924,871	30.74	11.60	1.66	50,788,055,748
West Kalimantan	4,167,293	15.46	3.75	0.46	20,532,588,372
Central Kalimantan	1,947,263	11.88	4.26	0.67	13,969,244,700
South Kalimantan	3,054,129	8.51	1.66	0.18	4,736,222,100
East Kalimantan	2,566,125	12.20	3.34	0.44	14,378,619,024
North Sulawesi	2,043,742	11.22	2.44	0.27	5,667,630,120
Central Sulawesi	2,268,046	24.89	5.37	0.86	17,939,100,600
South Sulawesi	8,244,890	15.88	5.07	0.67	45,559,263,912
South East Sulawesi	1,915,326	24.22	8.78	1.40	24,224,656,128
Gorontalo	855,057	32.12	13.16	1.96	14,740,606,380
Indonesia	202,707,418	18.20	4.39	0.56	1,091,672,721,744

Note: The food headcount index and the food insecurity are based on the gap between the total expenditure and the food poverty line as calculated by BPS.

fertilizers. Or it could control imports and then buy and sell rice so as to keep the price within a certain range. Or it could provide cheap subsidized rice to the poor.

At times Indonesia has used all of these methods. Until 1998 the national logistics agency, Bulog, had a monopoly on rice imports, and intervened in the market so as to keep prices steady by trading around 6% of consumption: some two million tons per year. This proved remarkably successful, keeping the domestic price more stable than world prices while matching the overall world price trend. Then from mid-1997 to mid-1998 Bulog sold stocks to keep the price below the prevailing high world price.

However this proved unsustainable since Indonesian farmers responded either by withholding stocks or by selling rice to traders who smuggled it out of the country to get a better price. Moreover this was very expensive, with a proposed budget for 1998/99 of Rp 12 trillion.⁴⁹

In August 1998 the government abandoned this policy in favour of a targeted rice subsidy programme, the Special Market Operation, or *Operasi Pasar Khusus* (OPK). This allowed qualifying poor households to buy ten (later 20) kilograms of rice per family per month at a subsidized price. Although the OPK programme is usually thought of as part of the safety net package organized in response to the crisis, with the assistance of international donors,

49 Tabor and Sawit (2001).

in fact the government had already established the OPK before the donors came on the scene, having simply switched from one form of price support to another. This ongoing programme is now called Raskin (from *Beras untuk Rakyat Miskin* – rice for the poor).

Finally in January 2000, as part of its agreement with the IMF, the government fully liberalized rice imports. But by this time the world rice price had fallen, so in order to protect Indonesia's farmers the government applied a specific tariff of Rp. 430 per kilogram to keep the price of rice higher than the world price.

In early 2004 this meant that while the world price of rice was Rp. 2,200 per kilogram for Indonesians the price was Rp. 2,700. Why do Indonesia's farmers need protection? At first glance they should be able to hold their own. Yields in Indonesia appear to be relatively high: more than four tons per hectare which by some estimates is twice as high as in Thailand.⁵⁰ The yield per hectare takes no account of inputs, in terms of irrigation or fertilizers, which will vary from country to country. But there seems no reason why, all things being equal, the 'farm gate' price of rice should be higher in Indonesia than elsewhere. In terms of value added per worker, for example, the figures for Indonesia and Thailand are similar.⁵¹ The main factor pushing the price up seems to be post-harvest losses and low milling yields, along with profiting by traders. However, it is also possible that the world price is artificially low since the main exporting countries such as Thailand and Vietnam may be subsidizing exports or selling surplus production on the world market at lower than their own production costs.

How best to help the poor

Most middle- and upper-income countries assist the poor through different forms of cash transfer. Should Indonesia do this rather than provide assistance 'in kind' in the form of rice. Cash transfers are superior in the sense that they offer people greater freedom of choice and they do not distort the workings of food or other markets. Direct transfers of food, however, also have advantages: they can encourage households to consume more and they allow the possibility of giving fortified forms of rice that would include additional nutrients. Moreover, while cash transfers often go to men, food transfers are more likely to be collected by women who can ensure it is consumed within the family.⁵² A transfer in kind may also be easier to monitor, and less susceptible to corruption, since it can be tracked both physically and financially.

Indonesia's choice has been to continue with the Raskin programme. Although Raskin is not the only form of food security interventions, for the purpose of analysis, the Report uses Raskin as an example to illustrate the cost of meeting the right to food. In 2004 this programme aimed

to provide 20 kilograms of rice to 8.59 million poor households at a price of Rp 1,000 per kilogram which it was thought would cover 40% to 60% of their needs. As did the OPK, the Raskin programme identifies poor households who are to receive this rice by using a classification system devised by the National Coordinating Board for Family Planning, BKKBN. This system was not originally intended to identify food insecure households, since it measures not income but assets – assessing, for example, the quality of the family house. Nevertheless it is probably the best available method for identifying poor households. Bulog distributes the food to community leaders in proportion to the number of poor families in their area. They then take the responsibility for distribution to households.

This system is far from perfect since in many cases community leaders simply share the food out among all households in their area, on the principle that everyone should be entitled to a public benefit. As a result, instead of 20 kilograms per household the average amount is thought to be somewhere between six and ten kilograms. Nevertheless, 64% of the poor do receive Raskin rice so it is clearly making a substantial contribution. In addition, the World Food Programme runs a similar scheme, delivering a further 60,000 tons through NGOs to 300,000 households at a cost of Rp. 170 billion per year.

Although the Raskin programme is not based on the income poverty line, it comes to a similar conclusion on the number of the poor – those classified as 'pre-prosperous' on BKKBN's system – which amounts to 8.6 million households. Assuming an average of 4.75 people per family, Raskin would reach 40.8 million people. BPS estimates the poverty rate at 18% so with Indonesia's current population of 210 million this comes to 38 million. Given that the criteria are slightly different, these are not necessarily the same people, but they indicate a similar scale of poverty.

Despite Raskin, 18% of the population are still poor. This is not surprising given Raskin's limitations in targeting. Although it provides cheap rice to 64% of the poor it also provides rice to 35% of the 'non-poor'. This sounds like a weak performance, until one takes into account the fact that probably around half the population are at risk of falling into poverty, so if Raskin is also reaching these people it is performing a valuable function.

Nevertheless, much more could be done to improve targeting. As indicated earlier, on the basis of the poverty gap it would take annual transfers of six to eight trillion Rupiah to lift the poor out of poverty. However, considering only food poverty on the grounds that many non-food food items had been taken into account by the education and health investments the cost would be Rp 1.09 trillion. If this were to be distributed in the form of food, however, one would need to add the cost of delivery or

50 ASEAN (2002).

51 World Bank, World Development Indicators.

52 Tabor (2000).

administration, plus an allowance for leakages due to mis-targeting. Cross-country studies reveal that for every \$1 spent on food distribution programmes the administration cost varies from \$1.60 to \$2.00, and the average leakage is about 30%.⁵³ The leakage occurs not just because of corruption, but mainly due to difficulties associated with identifying the poor or targeting. Thus, taking a middle figure of Rp. 1.75 trillion for administration and allowing for 30% mis-targeting, the total annual food security cost comes to Rp. 3.68 trillion. This figure is about Rp. 1.1 trillion less than the current annual budget of Raskin, primarily because it aims to help only the 4.4% of the population falling below the food poverty line.

Some of this transfer could be achieved through a more effective Raskin programme. Alternatively, it could be implemented by such programme as 'food-for-work'. This kind of programme has been found very effective in Bangladesh and India for example. Targeting tends to be more effective since only the poor will be prepared to do the necessary work. This 'self-targeting' can be further enhanced by setting the food-wage rate at slightly below the market wage rate. Food-for-work programmes have the additional benefit that they help maintain and build rural infrastructure.

Finally, not all of this need be new money. Some could come from the government's existing food security budget which amounts to around Rp. 4 trillion. For example, funds could be reallocated from the fertilizers subsidies – which are not targeted specifically at poor farmers.

The overall message therefore, is that by a combination of methods it should be quite possible to achieve food security in terms of quantity of rice – and to do so relatively inexpensively. It may be challenging logistically, or administratively, or politically, but the main obstacle should not be cost.

The cost of physical security

Physical security or freedom from violence is a fundamental human right and providing such security and the protection of the law is one of the most basic functions of the state. Without this freedom, people not only risk serious injury and death, they cannot go about their daily lives and are at risk of falling into poverty – especially when families lose their main income earner. The areas in Indonesia most affected by violence have seen declines in human development due to falls in both income and life expectancy.

In Indonesia, as elsewhere, violence takes many forms. In some cases it has been linked to ethnic and other struggles, claiming the lives of many people and displacing thousands of others. But many parts of the country have seen increases in violent crimes: muggings, robberies and

physical abuse or attacks. In Jakarta, for example, according to the Chief of Police, a crime occurs every 15 minutes and 33 seconds.⁵⁴ Crimes involving explosives rose from 95 in 2001 to 114 in 2002.

Indonesia has also been a victims of the rise in global terrorism. This has included a number of bomb attacks: at the Istiqlal mosque, several churches, shopping malls, the Philippine Ambassador's residence and the Marriot hotel, but the largest loss of life arose from the bomb in Bali in 2002 that killed 202 people.

Guaranteeing physical security requires the maintenance of law and order and the prosecution of perpetrators. But such protection need not take place entirely through the police and the judicial system. Active participation from institutions of civil society can also prevent social conflicts from erupting into destructive violence. And at the community level evidence from many countries also shows that civic engagement through neighbourhood watch can play an important role in preventing crime.⁵⁵

Reform of the security apparatus

In Indonesia until recently there was little distinction between internal and external security – between the police and the army. The police force was part of the national defence department and under the command of the army, the *Tentara Nasional Indonesia* (TNI). The TNI saw itself as the guardian of the nation. However, the TNI's image was seriously tarnished during the reign of President Soeharto who used it to consolidate his power – starting with the annihilation of millions of civilians in the early phase of the New Order administration. The TNI also had a direct involvement in politics. It claimed a dual function, *dwi-fungsi*, taking both a military and a social role which included representation in the upper house of parliament, the MPR. The TNI's image as a neutral guardian of law and order was further damaged by its activities in conflict-prone regions such as Aceh, Papua and East Timor. The poor image of the TNI also tarnished public perceptions of the police force. Indeed since the TNI was often involved in various 'police actions' the role of the police force itself was not clear.

Following the collapse of the New Order there have been a number of important reforms, through constitutional amendments that have changed the roles of the TNI and the police force. One of the most important is that the TNI has relinquished its political role and its membership of MPR. In addition in January 2001, the police force (POLRI) and the TNI were separated, with POLRI being placed under the direct command of the President. Now the TNI is entrusted with the traditional role of national defence against external threats while POLRI is solely responsible for internal security.

53 Subbarao, et. al. (1997).

54 The *Jakarta Post*, February 22, 2003.

55 Feltes (2000) refers to community-police partnership as a new approach to crime prevention. According to him, public opinion and informal social control have the central role not only in defining what crime is, but also in maintaining social order. Thus, partnerships between police and community, governments and citizens, institutions and individuals focus on prevention and the combination of social activities, and constitute a new philosophy of policing.

In line with other countries, in order to improve security the new Indonesian police force has adopted a strategy based on community involvement. But its overall strategy now needs to be more community oriented taking on broader functions such as conflict resolution, problem solving and provision of services. This will mean first that police officers will need to become integral parts of the community and work in partnership with the local people. Second, the police need to see themselves as delivering services not to the state but to the people. However, given past experience, the police will need to work urgently to build the confidence of local people.

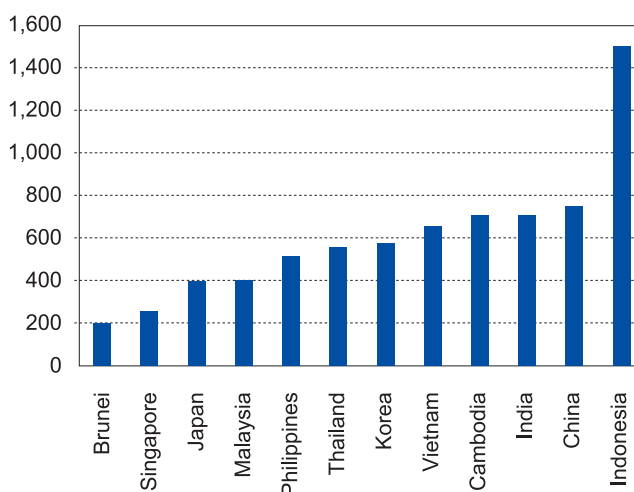
Both TNI and POLRI are undergoing further reforms with a view to making them more professional and efficient. But there will also need to be changes in the command structure. Following decentralization the regional governments have greater powers and responsibilities but under the present command structure they cannot direct the police. Instead they have to channel any request for police action through the President's office. This is often regarded as cumbersome and insensitive to local needs. As a result many regional governments are setting up their own local public order apparatus without any clear demarcation of functions between this and POLRI. This is not the only area of dispute: there have also been a number of clashes, sometimes violent, between TNI and POLRI, arising from the psychological spill-over of the separation process.

It is not uncommon to combine a national police force with a local public order apparatus. Indonesia can choose from a number of international models. Japan, for example, has one national police force, but the command structure is devolved to the provincial governments. Malaysia also has a similar structure in that the police stationed in a particular area respond to local needs as determined by the local authority and community.

Training, pay and numbers

Apart from issues of community orientation and command structure, improving the performance of the police will also have to cover personnel numbers, training and salaries. International experts have debated the ideal police-population ratio – an estimate that varies from 1:250 to 1:400.⁵⁶ Indonesia is far from an ideal ratio (Figure 4.4). In the mid-1990s, just before the crises, the ratio of police personnel to total population was 1: 1,500, ranking Indonesia below Japan (1:400), Singapore (1:250), Malaysia (1:400) and even China (1:750). Following the separation from the TNI there was substantial progress: the ratio declined to 1:798 and is predicted to be 1:750 by the end of 2004. But this ratio is still in gross terms and does not reflect actual numbers of police personnel

Figure 4.4 – Ratio of population to police personnel, 1998



Source: Rudini, 1998

patrolling the streets. As of March 2002, there were 256,640 police personnel but only 165,391 had direct security related functions so the effective ratio of police personnel to population was 1:1,310.

Of course simply increasing the numbers of police in any country will not necessarily increase security.⁵⁷ And in Indonesia, given the current extent of corruption some would argue that this might make matters worse. Research conducted by the Police Academy (*Perguruan Tinggi Ilmu Kepolisian*-PTIK) has identified police corruption at every step of law enforcement process – part of a general state of corruption throughout the justice system also involving prosecutors and judges.⁵⁸

Probably one of the most effective, and expensive elements of reform would be to improve the salaries of police such that they are less tempted by bribery and corruption. However, it should be emphasized, that dealing with corruption and improving the quality of the police force will demand wider ranging set of reforms, including better training, along with effective systems of monitoring and appropriate disciplinary procedures.

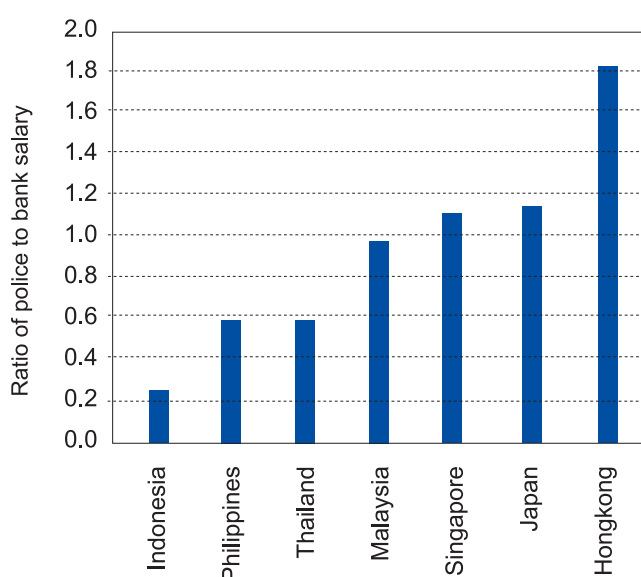
Some indication of the extent which police are underpaid can be gained by comparing them, for example, with bank employees. Figure 4.5 presents some international comparisons. In Hong Kong, where the police are seen as uncorrupted and professional, they receive nearly double the salary of an average bank employee. In Malaysia, Singapore and Japan which are also regarded as relatively safe countries, the average police and bank employee salaries are similar. In Indonesia, however police salaries are only around one-quarter of those of bank employees.

⁵⁶ Feltes (2000, p. 7). The international standard according to the UN is approximately 1:500 (UN, 1995, para 102).

⁵⁷ The studies by Lotfin and McDowell (1982), Krahn and Kennedy (1985) find that larger police numbers do not necessarily result in less crime. Indeed there generally is a positive correlation between police numbers and the incidence of crime – since with more police more crimes are likely to be reported. Provincial-level crime statistics in Indonesia are consistent with this finding. But using sophisticated econometric analysis using US data, Marvell and Moody found a two-way relationship between crime rates and police numbers. They concluded that each additional officer at the city level results in 24 fewer crimes.

⁵⁸ *Kompas*, 6 March 2004, page 43.

Figure 4.5 – Ratio of salaries of police to bank employees, 1998



Source: Rudini, 1998

Investing in physical security

How much would it cost to offer more reasonable salaries to the police force? Currently the annual budget for the police is Rp. 6.74 trillion for routine expenditure and Rp. 0.78 trillion for development expenditure. Setting the wages according the Malaysia or Singapore standard means the current wages would be roughly quadrupled, increasing the routine budget to Rp. 25.9 trillion. Total expenditure would then be Rp. 26.7 trillion.

The total budget would also increase if overall police numbers were boosted. If the ratio of police to population were improved from the current level of 1:1,500 to the Malaysian (or ASEAN) standard of 1:400 then the cost would increase to Rp. 53.27 trillion. The ASEAN standard might be deemed too high and unachievable in the short to medium term. An alternative would be to chose the current ratio in Jakarta of one 1:750 and set this as the national target. In that case, the estimated annual cost of providing physical security by increasing police salaries becomes Rp. 28.4 trillion – an increase of Rp. 20.9 trillion.

Conclusion

The estimates in this chapter for fulfilling rights to food security, to health, to education and physical security, can only give a general indication of requirements (Table 4.3) and they largely refer to routine costs rather than to development or capital costs. But contrary to the conventional assumption they do show that both in political and financial terms meeting these rights should be well within Indonesia's reach. Even the seemingly daunting figure for education is less than what the country is already committed to.

Although these components of human development have been considered and costed individually they should not be viewed in isolation. There are important synergies among them, so they should be seen as forming a package as part of a broader social policy framework. This may well mean, for example, that as a result of synergies the overall cost might be less than suggested by the sum of the individual components. On the other hand there could also be upward pressures on costs as rising living standards and economic progress encourage Indonesia to aim for higher targets.

Nor can these public expenditures be isolated from other aspects of public administration and the quality of governance. The public sector is tainted by corruption, and as a result the public holds it in low esteem. Increased public expenditure on human development must therefore be accompanied by improvements in accountability and a determined attack on corruption. As elaborated in the previous chapter, a rights-based approach to human development can make an important contribution to this since it requires participation of stakeholders at all levels – thus fostering transparency and accountability

Finally, this report recognizes that the state cannot provide everything. As part of the reform agenda, enough space must be created for civil society organizations which can offset some of the weaknesses of both the government and the private sector. Human development must therefore be based on a partnership between the state and civil society.

Table 4.3 – Annual costs for financing basic rights

	Current annual cost		Required increase, Rp. trillion	Full annual cost	
	Rp. trillion	% GDP		Rp. trillion	% GDP
Food security	4.8	0.27	-1.1	3.7	0.2
Basic health	8.4	0.47	5.2	13.6	0.77
Basic education	33.0	1.84	25.0	58.0	3.24
Physical security	7.5	0.42	20.9	28.4	1.59
Total	53.7	3.00	50.0	103.7	5.80

Box 4.3 – Comparing the proposed costings with other poverty initiatives

The human development approach costed in this chapter, complements a number of existing goals and strategies. As indicated in the previous chapter these include the poverty reduction strategy programme (PRSP) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The PRSP is a participatory process, between the government and other development partners which aims to increase the productivity and income of poor people and increase their capacity to meet their basic needs. The MDGs are a series of internationally agreed goals and targets which cover a whole range of issues from poverty, to gender equity to environmental sustainability.

All these exercises use the same data and targets. They also share the same basic philosophy. Thus they consider poverty not just as a question of income, but also consider its wider dimension - paying special attention to vulnerability. And both the NHDR and the MDGs also take a human rights perspective, arguing that development is not just a means but also an end in itself. This has important ramifications affecting everything from the articulation of needs to the implementation of projects. The rights perspective insists that a key feature of the process should be participation by stakeholders.

Another exercise which the government is currently engaged in is the development of minimum service standards (MSS). This is different in that it is not directly based on goals but rather aims to produce administrative guidelines designed for monitoring purposes. Nevertheless the MSS can adopt the same approach as NHDR and the MDGs and can be regarded as the implementation of the principle of equalizing citizens' rights to development. The ways in which the MDGs, PRSP and MSS correspond to human development priorities is indicated in the table below.

All of these processes have important budgetary implications. As yet the PRSP, the MDGs and MSS have not been fully costed, and hence their budgetary implications are not yet clear. As a contribution to this process, Chapter 4 of this report has attempts to cost four basic rights and Chapter 5 looks at the budgetary implications.

Millennium development goals	Poverty reduction strategy programme	Minimum service standards	Proposals in this report
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creating jobs and business opportunities • Social Protection 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Food security. • Recommend the full annual cost of Rp 3.7 trillion for food security
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Achieve universal primary education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Capacity building for the poor 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provision of Primary School : • Gross enrolment of 110% (grades 0-6) • Net enrolment 95% (grades 0-6) • Completion rate grades 95% • Plus many more 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nine years Compulsory Basic Education Programme. • Recommend full annual cost of Rp 58 trillion for basic education
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promote gender equality and empower women 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Empowerment of the poor • Capacity building for the poor 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Special allocation for women on education in "Education for All" Programme • Allocation on maternal health costs. • Data on Gender –Related Development Index and Gender Empowerment index.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduce child mortality 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Capacity building for the poor 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provision of neonatal health services: • Coverage of neonatal visits (90%) • Coverage of well baby visits (90%) • Malnourished babies that receive health care (100%) • And many more 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • General Health Services of primary care: immunization, family planning, mother and child health care, and curative care for disease such as TB, Malaria, and dengue fever • General scheme of "Kartu Sehat" • Recommend full annual cost of Rp 13.6 trillion for basic health
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improve maternal health 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Capacity building for the poor 		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Capacity building for the poor 		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure environmental sustainability 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Empowerment of the Poor 		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop a global partnership for development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Empowerment of the poor 		

A similar table is presented in "Poverty Reduction in the context of decentralized governance: common challenges facing the poverty reduction strategy, Millennium development goals, obligatory functions/minimum service standards", Tech. paper # 1, December 2003 (RTI-GTZ-ADB).

Health and education costings

Health costing

The health costings in this chapter are based on two costing exercises. The first was a World Bank estimate of the cost of providing a package of basic health services and some curative but not inpatient care for poor individuals. The second was a proposal from the Ministry of Health for Poverty Health Grants which would supplement this, notably with additional curative care for the poor, including in-patient care.⁵⁹

The Poverty Health Grant envisaged three components.

The first is the Poverty Curative Care Grant which would be based on average per capita cost for a standard package of benefits. This package comes to Rp. 50,323. Assuming that 20% of the population are poor – 42 million – the total cost would be Rp. 2,113 billion.

The second is the Poverty Public Health Grant which ensures that the poor get a number of pre- and post-natal services, family planning services and immunizations (see table). This is calculated at Rp 8,400. The total for 42 million people would be Rp 353 billion.

Appendix Table 1 – World Bank package of health services and curative care for poor individuals (1999 prices)

Programme	Services Provided	Coverage	Total per District (pop 600.000) in Rupiah
EPI	Basic immunization Hepatitis vaccination Pregnant women vaccination Elementary school (grade I) Elementary school (grade VI)	90% of infants 90% of infants 90% of pregnant women 100% of students (grade I) 100% of students (grade II-VI)	4,282,279,351
Lung Tuberculosis	Case finding Cure rate	70/100.000 pop 91% curative care for 20% poor	115,948,591
Malaria	Case finding Larva control Mosquito control	300/100,000 pop curative care for 20% poor 100% of targeted village 100% of targeted village	334,442,104
Dengue	Case finding Fogging Abatisasi Environment manipulation	10/100,000 pop curative care for 20% poor 50% of target 10% of target 10% of target	2,953,904,274
Diarrhoea	Case finding	28/1,000 pop curative care for 20% poor	1,050,185,998
ARI	Case finding	11/1,000 pop curative care for 20% poor	687,813,851
STD	Case finding	12/1,000 pop curative care for 20% poor	233,939,381

59 Setiadi and Marzolf (2001).

Curative Care	Basic services to the poor	20% of Population	1,113,856,683
MCH	K4 Birth delivery by health staff Post-partum care	85% of pregnant women 80% of pregnant women 80% of neonates	2,759,339,727
NUTRITION			1,888,814,976
Iron	Pregnant women coverage	80%	
	Child coverage	100%	
Vitamin A	Child coverage	80%	
	Lactating mother coverage	100%	
Iodine	Iodine capsule coverage	100%	
	Salt monitoring coverage	100% of schools	
School Health	Deworming Student screening	100% 100%	353,071,552
PHN	Coverage of home visits	100%	2,505,518,244
Family Planning	Active participants	100%	2,326,362,506
Water & Sanitation			335,315,403
IMCL	Sick children (0-4)	80%	3,772,445,850
		Total	24,713,238,491
		Per capita	41,189*

Appendix Table 2 – Benefits covered by the poverty health grant

Primary care for maternity	
Prenatal visits	
Postnatal visits	
Well Baby visits	
<hr/>	
Infant nutritional supplementation	
Other nutritional supplementation	
<hr/>	
Immunization	
Family planning	
Basic dental care	
Specialist referrals*	
Emergency care	
Basic III class hospitalization*	
Surgery (up to level 2)	
Normal delivery	
Complicated delivery	

Note: The unit cost estimates for items with the exception of those with “*” asterisk come from the MOH 1999 study, “Studi Identifikasi Unit Cost Paket Dasar Pelayanan Kesehatan, PSM – Litbankes” The ones with * are derived from the 1999 Susenas.

Appendix Table 3 – Per capita costs (Rupiah)

Per capita public	8,486
Per capita special	19,603
Total per capita non-poor	28,088
Poverty total per capita	78,412
Per capita need, poor and non-poor	38,153
Poverty curative per capita	50,323

Note: * Per capita need of both poor and non-poor. This figure is derived as follows: 80% (non-poor) x Rp. 28,088 + 20% (poor) x Rp. 78,412

** curative includes the nutritional supplements

The third is the 'Special Fund' is set at 25% of the total poverty health services grant. This would be used to top up the funds available through the other grants so as to cover disparities between districts such as higher unit costs due to geography and to fund special poverty-related problems (water, sanitation, iodine deficiency, high malaria or TB incidence, etc). The total would be Rp 823 billion.

Education costing

This is based on a costing by the Ministry of Education of what it would cost to achieve the commitments to Education for All established at the World Education Forum in Dakar in April 2000. These are indicated in the table below which shows the incremental annual cost per pupil at 2002/2003 prices. Not all of these need be implemented immediately. Those marked *** are essential, those marked ** have a high priority. Those marked * are important but could be deferred until sufficient resources are available.

Appendix Table 4 – Primary education, extra costs per pupil

	Rp. thousands per pupil
<i>I. Access improvements</i> Achieving a 100% net enrolment ratio by 2008/09 Net saving in cost, from 2003/2004 level, as a result of fewer children and fewer under or over-age pupils	-46.30
<i>II. Quality improvement</i> 1. Books for 100% of pupils by 2006 *** 2. Teaching materials for 100% of pupils by 2005*** 3. Teacher salary supplements*** 4. Library construction* 5. Some library-books for school without libraries** 6. Librarian-teachers (who also help students that have trouble and contact parents)* 7. Minor school renovation : 70% renovated by 2009, 100% by 2015* 8. Major school renovation : 70% renovated by 2009 100% by 2015*	14.40 24.00 20.55 7.43 1.15 40.28 13.31 15.47
<i>Total cost for quality improvements</i>	136.58
<i>III. Equity improvements</i> 1. Support for economically poor students (can be used for scholarships, fee waivers, teacher salary supplements in poor areas where BP3 fee receipt are low, and remedial teaching)*** 2. Net cost to compensate districts directly with poor students for lack of BP3 and other fee revenue***	46.71 38.00
<i>Total cost for equity improvements</i>	84.71
<i>IV. District-level cost per pupil</i> 1. Current district level administration, Rp 274.2 in 2. School Rehabilitation, Repeats II-7,8 above * 3. Management Improvement, District and School *** 4. Testing : Assessment, Quality Assurance**	28.70 30.00 6.00
<i>Total annual increase required at district level above the 2003-04 level</i>	208.66
Current expenditure per pupil in 2003/2004 (base)	966.00
Total of current and incremental costs	1,174.70

Appendix Table 5 – Junior secondary education, extra costs per pupil

	Rp. thousands per pupil
<i>I. Access improvements</i> Achieving 100% gross enrolment by 2008, 100% net enrolment by 2015	
1. Cost for enrolment increase from 2002/2003 levels	293.55
2. Cost for new classroom construction, furniture ***	36.52
3. Cost for new building principal's office, furniture and lab (not classroom [above] and library [below])***	43.47
<i>Total cost for quality improvements</i>	<i>373.54</i>
<i>II. Quality improvements</i>	
1. Books for 100% of pupils by 2006 ***	21.60
2. Teaching materials for 100% of pupils by 2005***	36.00
3. Teacher salary supplements***	35.10
4. Library construction*	11.13
5. Some library-books for schools without libraries**	0.44
6. Librarian-teachers (who also help students that have problems and contact parents)	60.00
7. Minor school renovation : 70% renovated by 2009, 100% by 2015*	8.79
8. Major School Renovation : 70% renovated by 2009 100% by 2015*	11.97
<i>Total cost for equity improvements</i>	<i>185.03</i>
<i>III. Equity improvements</i>	
1. Support for economically poor students (as for primary education)	79.17
2. Net cost to compensate districts with poor students directly for lack of BP3 and other fee revenue	195.89
	275.06
<i>Total annual increase required at district level above the 2003-04 level</i>	<i>833.63</i>
Current expenditure per pupil in 2003/2004 (base)	1,449.00
Total of current and incremental costs	2,283.00

Rethinking fiscal priorities

Indonesia can no longer rely so much on economic growth to deliver better health and education through the private sector, so it will have to invest more in public services. This will require an increase in public expenditure but one that should be quite feasible given a new set of fiscal priorities.

Budgetary management entails a number of trade-offs. On the one hand the government has to ensure a stable economy and manage spending so as to achieve long-term fiscal viability. On the other hand it has to ensure that it invests sufficiently in progress in human development. In the past, whether through normal budget expenditure or special 'Inpres' grants for health and education Indonesia has generally underinvested – lagging behind comparable ASEAN neighbours and other countries at similar stages of development. In future Indonesia will need to change its fiscal priorities so as to achieve a better balance.

A useful way of analysing public expenditure was proposed in the 1991 global *Human Development Report*. This suggested the use of four ratios:

- *The public expenditure ratio* – the percentage of national income that goes into public expenditure.
- *The social allocation ratio* – the percentage of public expenditure for social services.
- *The social priority ratio* – the percentage of social expenditure to human priority concerns.
- *The human expenditure ratio* – the percentage of national income devoted to human priority concerns. This is the product of the first three ratios.

These ratios allow policy-makers to identify imbalances in the current budgetary allocations and to make necessary adjustments. If the public expenditure ratio is high, but the social allocation ratio is low, the budget will need to be reassessed to see which areas of expenditure could be reduced. Similarly if the first two ratios are high, but human development indicators are low, the social priority ratio will have to be increased.

Indonesia's public expenditure ratio is about the same as that in other ASEAN countries: over the period 1991-1997, before the crisis it was about 17%,⁶⁰ though after the crisis, due to the need to pay more interest as a result of bank restructuring, it rose to an average of 21%. But as can be seen from Figure 5.1, the social allocation ratio is much lower: Indonesia spends much less than other countries on education, health and public order. In education, for example, Malaysia, Thailand and the Philippines allocate six to seven times more than does Indonesia. And as a proportion of their budget they also spend twice as much on public order and safety. In addition they devote a larger share of their budget to health. In South Korea the public expenditure ratio is lower than in Indonesia but a larger share of the budget goes to education.

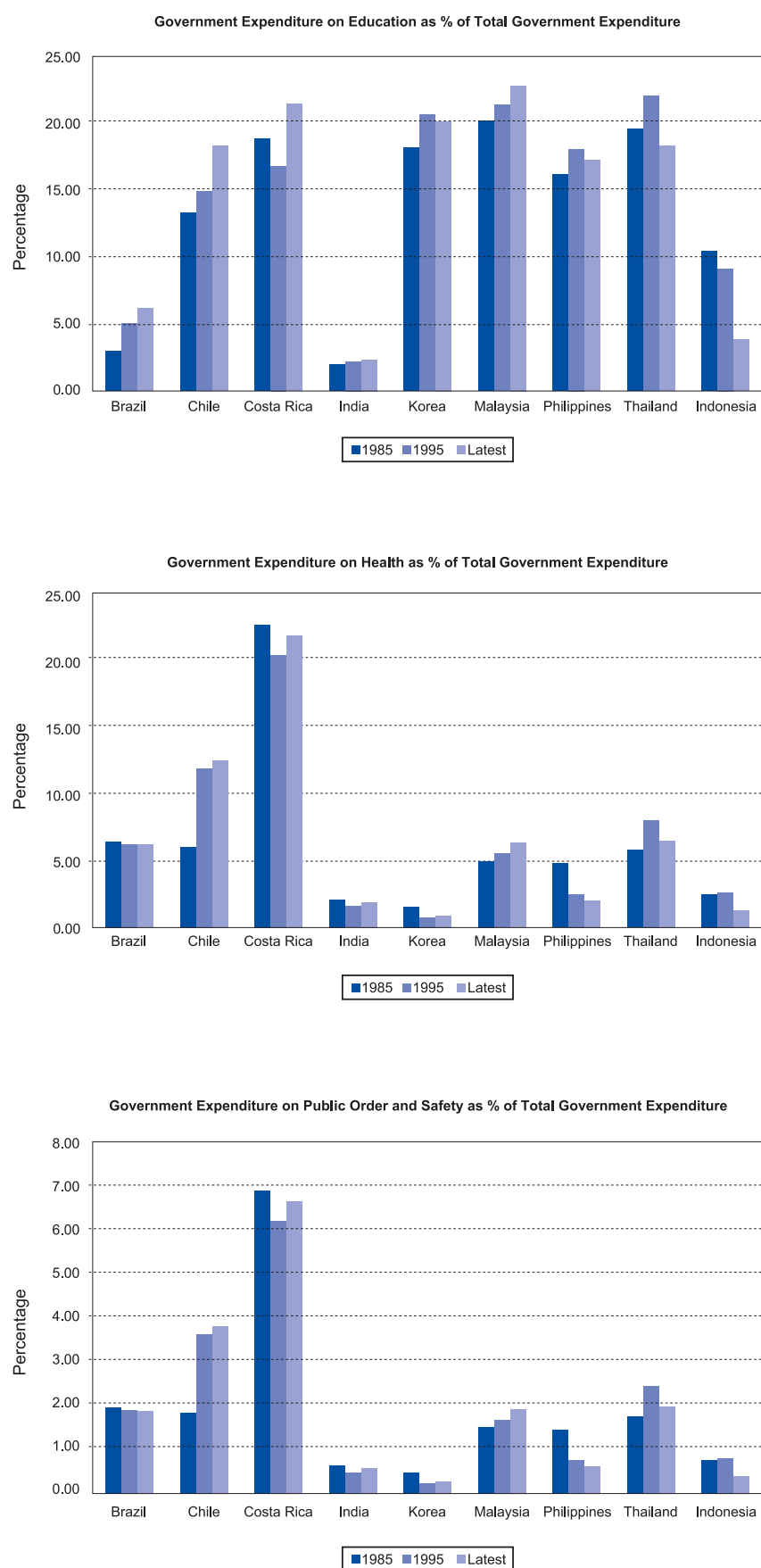
These budgetary allocations reveal public choice preferences (Box 5.1) and in particular that Indonesia has consistently shown a low preference for the social sector – instead devoting around half of the total state budget to the civil service and to subsidies for state-owned enterprises.

The previous chapter has estimated how much public social expenditure would be required to finance food security, free primary health care for all, together with curative health care for the poor, nine years of adequate basic education and improvements in public order and safety. What would be the budgetary implications of this level of expenditure? By international standards these demands are not high. Certainly they would require Indonesia to spend an additional 3% of its GDP on education, health and physical security. But excluding non-discretionary interest payments, social expenditure at this level would simply bring Indonesia into line with other ASEAN countries.

Can Indonesia commit an additional 3% of GDP for public expenditure during this phase of its economic recovery? Given the extent of its post-crisis debt burden how can it re-orient its budgetary priorities? And even if the central government does shift its priorities how, in an era of radical decentralization, can it ensure that regional governments follow suit? These are the questions that will be addressed in the rest of this chapter.

⁶⁰ Average (1991-1997) public expenditure ratios for Malaysia, Thailand, the Philippines and South Korea were 24%, 16.3%, 18.8% and 16.8%, respectively.

Figure 5.1 – Analysis of public social expenditure (selected countries)



Source: IMF, Government Financial Statistics (selected issues)

At the very outset, however, it should be noted that an additional 3% of GDP on social expenditure does not necessarily imply that public expenditure as a percentage of GDP has to rise proportionately. A large part of the increase can be achieved by re-prioritizing – shifting expenditure from current non-priority sectors to the priority social sectors. Over 20% of public expenditure, for example, currently goes to support state-owned enterprises. These subsidies should fall as more of economic activity becomes market-driven, leaving more to invest in the social sectors.

Towards economic recovery

Even during this period of systemic transition,⁶¹ Indonesia's fiscal management goal should be to achieve, sustained stable and equitable economic growth that is conducive to promoting human development. At the same time it should also be aiming to promote physical security – broadly defined to include the assurance of a viable state and a cohesive society characterized by the rule of law. This will mean therefore not just considering development spending or the allocations for the social sectors but rethinking the entire budget.

The opportunities for doing this will depend to a large extent on macroeconomic performance. Indonesia was the country hardest hit by the Asian crisis, and it has been the slowest to revive; even today the economic recovery remains relatively weak and fragile. The crisis itself caused a sudden contraction in GDP and although growth is again positive it remains lower than before the crisis: 3.5% to 4.0%. Total GDP has only just returned to its 1996 level and per capita income is still lower than before the crisis.

Even this recovery has two major weaknesses. First, it has largely been driven by private consumption which can be sustained only so long as the economy has unutilized capacity⁶²; moreover, as a result of this consumption boom the domestic savings rate remains below the pre-crisis level. A second weakness is that investment is too low: at present this is only 20% of GDP, some 10 percentage points below the pre-crisis level. Continuing macroeconomic stability should improve the investment climate to some extent. But businesses will also need reassurance that the government is determined to tackle corruption in the justice system, consolidate democratic governance and guarantee social peace and cohesion.⁶³ All these conditions are of course closely linked and mutually reinforcing: better governance and social stability foster investment in broadly based growth, but that growth itself will be also conducive to improvements in social well-being.⁶⁴

The post-crisis fiscal environment

The financial crisis caused severe fiscal pressures – resulting in increased spending, plummeting revenue and a huge domestic debt liability. Some of these constraints have now eased. The subsidies that were introduced to alleviate the adverse effects of the crisis have since been withdrawn or substantially reduced. The debt issue has been addressed to some extent by re-profiling the maturities of domestic bonds and rescheduling the external debt, though this only shifts the burden further into the future. But the fallout of the crisis is still manifest in many areas of budgetary management: some sectors like infrastructure have been subjected to severe spending cuts,

Box 5.1 – Budgetary outcomes as revealed public choice

Why do governments conduct their budgetary policies in the way they do? The underlying assumption is that governments act as 'benevolent social guardians'. So in order to have political legitimacy they generally couch their budgetary policies in terms of broad welfare objectives, such as promoting equitable growth and alleviating human poverty. In reality, budget-making is shaped by a whole range of economic-political-institutional interactions - which can include deviant political motives that are part of a hidden agenda.

Even if the process of budget making is opaque it is usually quite easy to assess the results. This outcome can be considered as the 'revealed public choice' which can then be compared with the stated policy objectives. This tends to show that budgets are prepared by making only incremental changes to the previous year's allocations - though over the medium term it is possible to discern shifts in policy. Budgets also reflect the balance of political power among groups or classes in a society, even if it is not always easy to identify such biases.

In its fiscal policies how far does the government carry out the mandate from the electorate? This is difficult to say since, in the new democracies of the developing world, elections are rarely fought on clearly articulated economic policy issues, and there are often no effective democratic institutions for ensuring the accountability of the government's fiscal operations. Instead public accountability is more likely to be achieved through non-institutional mechanisms including civic activism, a free press and a broad political awareness. This is why, in spite of the perverse political incentives embedded in many new democracies, most governments do at least claim to take the role of 'benevolent social guardians'.

Source: Mahmud (2002).

61 For in-depth analyses of the nature of this systemic transition, see Mishra (2000, 2001, and 2004).

62 See World Bank (2003a), p.2.

63 See Mishra (2001) for an articulation of this point in the Indonesian context.

64 This follows, for example, from the hypothesis of a 'path-dependent' development of political and economic institutions. According to this hypothesis, once good institutions have been created for social progress, they can gather momentum of their own towards further progress. The reverse is true when these institutions are captured by narrow interest groups. See North (1990).

creating a huge backlog of unmet funding needs.⁶⁵ A durable and sustained recovery, both on the economic and the human development fronts, will undoubtedly require a lot of effort and political commitment in fiscal management.

The financial crisis plunged many more people into poverty but it did not seem to have a serious impact on health and education. To some extent this was due to swift government action in developing a social safety net programme: the *Jaring Pengaman Sosial* (JPS). This included targeted scholarships and health subsidies, a continuation of subsidized rice sales, and workfare schemes, along with village block grants. These interventions, most of which have since been phased out, helped to cushion the economic impact of the crisis on the poor and vulnerable groups – in particular helping parents to keep their children at school.

However the resilience of social indicators may be deceptive because some of the damage may not be revealed by the overall human development indicators or will appear only after a time lag. Since 1998, for example, there has been a visible slowdown in the growth of net enrolment at the junior secondary level. And since 2000 the proportion of underweight children, which until then had been declining, has started to increase, suggesting that the effects of the previous increase in poverty are only just being felt.⁶⁶ In the late 1990s the proportion of households with access to sanitation stagnated or even declined, and there has also been stagnation in the immunization rate of children. In addition there has been a decline in the proportion of people with access to health facilities.

There may also be a lag in the effects on public expenditure. Prior to the crisis, public expenditure on health had been rising and, contrary to popular perception, this upward trend continued to 1999/2000 (Figure 5.1). This was possible mainly because of the increased donor assistance for the health sector. In more recent years, however, public health spending has faced a fiscal crunch,

falling precipitously in the subsequent two years before recovering in 2002. The situation was more serious for education for which per capita spending fell almost immediately after the crisis. This took place during a period in which efforts were being made to increase enrolment, but the lower budget meant an inevitable decline in quality.

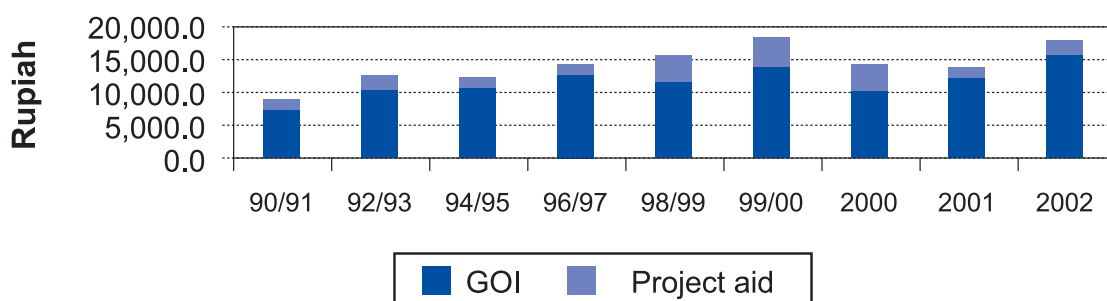
Now that the level of GDP has recovered to the post-crisis level, the government needs to rethink its entire range of fiscal options. It cannot simply rely on economic growth to drive human development. It will also have to increase social spending. Even before the crisis there were serious disparities in human development, both between income groups and regions, and these are likely to have worsened. And since then much more ground has been lost. But more importantly, the government will need to achieve a quantum jump in social spending if Indonesia is to attain the levels of human development to which its people aspire. This will require a different outlook. A renewed commitment to public social spending is not merely a technical problem of budgetary reform; it involves redefining the welfare goals of the budget and consequently of the state.

Making room for spending on human development

What kind of changes can be made? It may appear that within the present budget there is little room for manoeuvre, at least in the short run. But a closer look at the quality of spending and the actual benefits obtained from such spending reveals significant scope for reallocation of resources.

One way of widening the government's budgetary options is to strengthen the revenue mobilization effort – an area in which the ongoing macroeconomic reforms have made little progress. Indonesia's tax burden, currently at about 12% of GDP, is relatively light, mainly as a result of the inefficiency of the tax system combined with large-scale evasion – estimated at between 15% and 50% of potential tax revenues. This in turn reflects weak

Figure 5.1a – Per capita public health expenditure in 1993 constant prices



Notes: Includes the expenditure from the region's budget. Figures for year 2000 are for 12 months adjusted for the overlap of the financial years.

Source: Data from The Ministry of Finance and estimates made by The World Bank

⁶⁵ See World Bank (2003a).

⁶⁶ For evidence on all these, see GOI (2004).

enforcement particularly for personal and corporate income taxes which, being progressive, have the greatest capacity to redistribute income from rich to poor. Here there seems to be a fairly straightforward trade-off: either going for a stronger tax collection drive that will hurt the elite or accepting lower levels of social expenditure that will predominantly hurt the poor.

Similar considerations apply to wealth and property taxes. These now contribute only about 5% of total tax revenue, a far lower proportion than in other ASEAN countries. Indonesia has a very large concentration of wealth at the top end of the income scale – a disparity not fully captured by household income-expenditure surveys in which the very rich typically fail to participate.⁶⁷ Again the trade off is either to have higher property taxes or lower investment in human development.

Indonesia's budget has also suffered from the need to pay interest on the high level of domestic debt incurred during the crisis, mainly for the recapitalization of banks – payments that can crowd out social spending. In principle the state-owned asset-management company (the now-defunct IBRA) should have been able to recover some of the assets of defaulters but it came up against many judicial and other hurdles. Moreover, the government faces additional fiscal risks because of the contingent liability it incurred by taking over bank assets or guaranteeing bank deposits.⁶⁸ To avert a future crisis, the government needs to launch an aggressive campaign to recover assets from uncooperative defaulters. The recent experience amply demonstrates how contingent liabilities can turn into actual ones. Clearly, however, the credibility of the government's entire debt management and bank restructuring programme will hinge on a transparent and accountable system of economic governance.

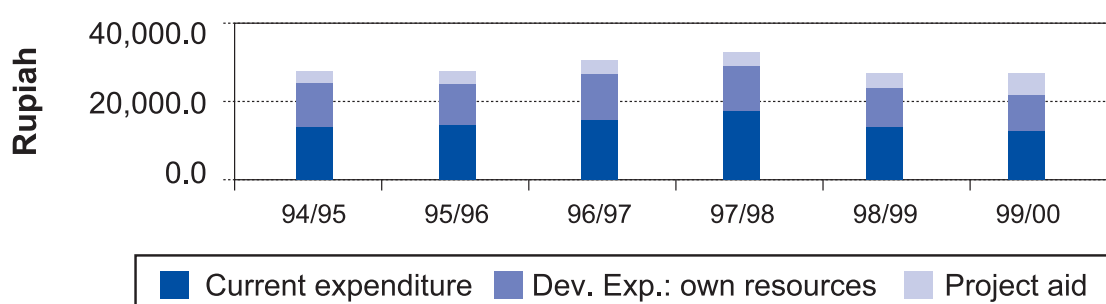
The reform of the banking sector has even wider implications for Indonesia's economic recovery since the

prevailing weakness of the banking system is also constraining investment. As in the other areas of macroeconomic reforms, a successful restructuring of the banking system depends upon the quality of Indonesia's overall systemic transition. For example, in order for the banking system to allocate resources efficiently, there needs to be a new kind of entrepreneurial culture not beholden to patronage politics or crony capitalism. A reformed banking system also needs to focus on small enterprises: although they have the greatest capacity for absorbing the growing labour force they find it very difficult to get credit from banks.

Increased social spending could also be funded by accepting a higher level of fiscal deficit. The opportunities for doing this will depend on the prevailing macroeconomic situation. Certainly deficits should not be so large as to jeopardize macroeconomic stability or longer-run fiscal sustainability. But modest deficits can be useful. Not only can they fund social spending but at a time when private investment is low they provide a fiscal stimulus by making up for deficiencies in aggregate demand. Far from crowding out private investment such public investment can actually crowd it in. This will be the case when it is used to improve physical infrastructure, for example, and also when it promotes social cohesion, both of which improve the overall investment climate.⁶⁹

Deficit spending has not been common in Indonesia which has generally overemphasized the need to achieve a balanced budget – a bias that has often been reinforced by a tendency to underestimate expected revenue earnings and overestimate expenditures.⁷⁰ In the wake of the financial crisis, for example, the fiscal deficit was ultimately much smaller than had been stipulated by the IMF programme. In part, this was a consequence of institutional inflexibility. Indonesia previously did not have a system of countercyclical spending through social safety

Figure 5.1b – Per capita public education expenditure in 1993 constant prices



Notes: Includes only the central government's budget
Source: Data from The Ministry of Finance and The World Bank

⁶⁷ On this, see, for example, Sudjana (2003). Claessens, et. al. (1999) find that 58% of stock market capitalisation in Indonesia is controlled by the top 10 families – the highest proportion in East Asia.

⁶⁸ To keep the banking sector solvent, the government not only had to inject funds to recapitalize the banks, but also found itself the owner of nearly 70% of assets in a banking system that remains fragile.

⁶⁹ Budget deficits rarely get out of hand. Many countries, such as Malaysia, have lived with a budget deficit of 5%-6% of GDP for decades, enjoyed respectable growth rates and eventually were able to reduce the deficits. Indonesia could now accept a higher budget deficit and finance this by floating social development bonds – akin to the infrastructure bonds common in a number of countries. These bonds could be used to fund capital investment in social services.

⁷⁰ See, World Bank (2000), p.7.

nets that could automatically be activated in an economic downturn – an additional argument for having such programmes in the future.

It should be emphasized, however, that simply increasing social spending will not in itself improve social services. In the past public spending has often been of low quality, compromised by widespread corruption and rent-seeking – though this inefficiency and the consequent drain on public resources was masked by economic growth and by oil revenues that sustained public finances. In the current, more constrained environment the government will have to pay much more attention to wastage and cost effectiveness.

It will also have to tackle corruption. Evidence from cross-country comparisons suggests that corruption not only reduces efficiency it also alters the composition of government spending – tending to reduced education and health investment, presumably because compared with other areas these expenditures offer fewer opportunities for rent-seeking.⁷¹ Fortunately in a more open and democratic environment fiscal policymaking can be subjected to greater scrutiny and the rigours of democratic debate and can also be tailored to the new realities of decentralization.

Social spending under fiscal decentralization

Following decentralization from 2001, Indonesia has now experienced nearly three years of regional autonomy that has shifted much of the responsibility for public services to the local level. And whereas in the past flows of funds from the centre to the regions generally took the form of earmarked grants the new fiscal framework relies largely on a general grant. Along side fiscal decentralization, the country has switched to a new accountability system at the local level, with the head of the region being elected by regional parliaments, which in turn are elected by popular vote.

This new system entails certain risks but these should be outweighed by the benefits. In place of the earlier top-down technocratic approach to resource allocation, the new system allows available resources to be better matched to local needs. Chapter two of this report has demonstrated that regions differ not just in their overall levels of human development but also in their patterns of deficiency in the different dimensions of human development. Each region will thus have its own priorities. In education, for example, some regions have an excellent record in primary enrolment, but have done rather poorly in junior secondary enrolment.⁷²

The new system fosters a rights-based approach to human development since it should allow local people to participate in decision making on resource allocation and programme implementation. This is not just a democratic

imperative, it also has economic benefits. The different areas of human development and poverty alleviation have synergistic relationships – interventions in one can reinforce the impact of another (Box 3.3, p. 28). For example, if the aim is to increase school enrolment, investment in building more schools will be much more effective if it is accompanied by efforts to reduce the extreme poverty that often keeps children away from school. However, it is difficult for planners to devise a combination of interventions based simply on economic criteria. Local people, with superior information about the complexities of local needs are in a better position to achieve this balance.

Local governments can also be more flexible and responsive when it comes to budgeting. When drawing up budgets, central planners tend to replicate previous patterns of expenditure, making incremental adjustments. At the local level, on the other hand, there should be much greater scope for a fresh approach – starting again from scratch with what is called ‘zero-based’ budgeting (see Box 5.1). When the aim is to make a distinct break with the past this approach helps reorient public spending much more towards human development.

Decentralization does, of course, also entail risks. There is no guarantee that opportunities for local level flexibility will be used in a positive way. While some regions are already forging ahead with innovations in service delivery, others have allocated only meagre amounts to health and education. One way to address this is by establishing minimum service delivery standards. However, these standards will need to be supported financially – through equalizing grants from the central government to the poorest districts.

Another danger of decentralization is that corruption and rent-seeking at the centre will be replicated, in an even worse form, at the local level – again not only wasting resources but also jeopardizing the prospect of better resource allocations. Corrupt local governments may, for example, show a bias towards large construction projects on which it is easier to collect substantial bribes, rather than towards routine expenditure such as textbook supply or teachers’ salaries. The spending priorities can thus easily get distorted.

Decentralization also requires stronger local institutions. People’s needs can be reflected in resource allocations only if there are institutional mechanisms that can articulate such needs. Local people will need to work together in community-based organizations through which they, and not just local elites, can have a say over allocations. They can also better identify impact of misgovernance and corruption – whether in the poor quality of schooling or health care or in the weak implementation of local development projects. They are therefore in a better position to make well informed criticisms and demand better governance.

71 See Mauro (2002).

72 For example, Bangkalan district in East Java has a high primary enrolment ratio of 98%, but its junior school enrolment rate is only about 40%, compared to the district average of about 70%. The situation is similar in Pandeglang in West Java.

Another risk from decentralization is that it could exacerbate regional disparities. Indonesia already has sharp contrasts between districts: in 2001, on a per capita basis the richest local government had 50 times more revenue than the poorest one.⁷³ These gaps seem likely to widen. This is first because districts are now allowed to keep a share of the benefits from oil and other natural resources that are on their territories. Second the richer districts have a stronger tax base so should be able to gain more revenue from local taxes. As a result, while the richer regions should have more resources to invest in human development the poorer regions will be hard-pressed to attain minimum service standards, let alone improve upon them. As the regions get more taxing authority, this will need to be offset by equalizing arrangements for revenue-sharing.

Nevertheless, it seems inevitable that regional disparities will remain for the foreseeable future and that some regions will prosper more than others. In these circumstances Indonesia needs to arrive at a national consensus on meeting citizens' human development rights and should establish a minimum socially acceptable universal level of human development and allocate its resources accordingly.

This does not necessarily mean aiming for equality of income but rather for equity in the development of human capabilities. This not only fulfils people's basic rights, it also brings economic benefits since public investment in human development is likely to bring higher returns in relatively backward regions than in the advanced regions. For example, new schools are likely to attract more new students in areas where enrolment is relatively low.⁷⁴ This may also be true of many small-scale investment projects, such as those for irrigation, where investment can create greater income-earning opportunities for the poor than if they were invested in large-scale manufacturing or service industries.

A social sector fund – a means to protect social spending

How can the government ensure that social spending is raised and maintained given tight budgetary constraints and the implications of decentralization? One way to

demonstrate the government's commitment is to earmark funds for designated social spending by creating a Social Sector Fund (SSF).⁷⁵

There are a number of ways a SSF can be created. For example, it could be built up by taking a certain percentage of proceeds from the exploitation of natural resources. Since these resources are ultimately owned by all Indonesians one of the best ways to ensure that the benefits are shared equitably is through social spending. Regions with richer resource endowments would thus make a larger contribution.

As the Indonesian economy becomes more market centred, fewer public funds will be needed to subsidize state-owned enterprises, leaving resources that can be redirected to the social sector. Moreover, following the example of the fuel subsidy compensation fund,⁷⁶ the SSF could also be allocated a percentage of the proceeds from privatization and from any savings from reforms and restructuring. India, for example, uses this system and in 2001-02 allocated the equivalent of Rp. 1 billion from privatization proceeds to the social sectors.⁷⁷ This system has the added advantage of creating greater support for reforms.⁷⁸

Another possibility is to apply a social sector levy on corporations. This can be justified to corporations on the grounds that it can help moderate wage claims: workers who as a result of greater social spending benefit from subsidised or free education, health care and other social services should have less need to press for higher wages. A social fund levy would not therefore necessarily add to business costs. Businesses also gain since they can take advantage of a better educated and better nourished labour force that will be more productive.⁷⁹ A similar levy can be applied to wealthy individuals. This could also be linked to *Zakat* – an obligatory charity for well-to-do Muslims – allowing the SSF levy to be offset against *Zakat*. These mandatory funding sources of SSF can also be supplemented by voluntary contributions through tax deductible charities and donations.

However, this kind of system can only work if contributors to the fund, whether compulsory or voluntary, have confidence in its management. People generally comply with such revenue collecting measures when they see their money is spent on worthy causes.

73 See World Bank (2003a), p.iv.

74 To some extent, this may be counterbalanced by the higher costs of providing services in remote areas.

75 One may argue that such earmarked funds are fungible. That is, overall spending does not necessarily increase in the earmarked sector, as the government shifts its non-earmarked spending to other sectors. However, there is very little evidence for this. Most empirical studies find that when funds are earmarked, spending does increase, although it may not rise by the expected amount.

76 In the 1999/2000 budget fuel subsidies amounted to Rp. 40.9 trillion. In the 2001 budget, Rp. 2.2 trillion were allocated to a social compensation fund for education, health, food, transportation, clean water etc. In the 2002 budget the allocation was Rp. 2.85 trillion, including Rp. 570 billion for the health sector to cover free in-patient care for the poor in 446 public hospitals, free generic drugs for 47.9 million poor and free hepatitis vaccines for 1.5 million poor people. In 2003, Rp. 4.43 trillion were budgeted to compensate 30 million people for the effects of the 22% increase in fuel prices.

77 Prabhu (2003).

78 The Australian government successfully generated support for the sale of publicly owned telecommunication corporation, Telstra, by creating a special fund from the sales proceeds to be used for the environmental cause.

79 Singapore successfully used a levy on corporations to create a Skill Development Fund (SDF) for financing the training of unskilled workers. This eventually raised productivity and hence reduced unit labour costs which helped corporations to enhance and maintain their international competitiveness. Another example of a successful earmarked levy is the Employment Guarantee Scheme in the state of Maharashtra in India which is funded through resources raised mainly from urban areas to provide employment for unskilled labour in rural areas.

To create public confidence in the operation of an SSF the projects it funds should be well publicized and its management should be in the hands of an autonomous committee that includes representatives from the regional governments, the corporate sector, civil society organizations and eminent citizens.⁸⁰

Conclusion

Indonesia has certainly declared its intention to fulfil people's rights, having endorsed the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and enshrined many of these objectives in the Constitution. And as a result of democratization and decentralization people now have higher expectations of public services. Nevertheless, at a time of financial stringency, there is a temptation to postpone the necessary social investment: the government may instead focus excessively on repairing the state budget at the expense of human and social development, in the hope that this will create enough investor confidence to regenerate growth.

This may seem prudent, but in fact it runs the risk of destroying what Amartya Sen calls the 'social roots' of

progress. These roots have both instrumental and intrinsic values. Better education, health and nutrition have an instrumental value in that they contribute to higher productivity. But human development also has an intrinsic value – it is an end in itself and failure to promote human development can lead to social and political instability which also has serious consequences for economic growth.

Human development cannot be put on the back-burner, awaiting a more favourable budgetary climate. Instead the budget itself needs to be reoriented to fulfil people's rights. Rather than cutting the suit according to the cloth, the aim should be to ensure that there is sufficient cloth to make the suit. This means determining the needs according to human development targets and then finding the required revenue.

A pre-requisite for such reorientation is a national consensus on the primacy of human development. Without such a consensus it will be very difficult to sustain a coherent strategy. It is vital too that regional governments share the same commitment since they are the ultimate executors. All major political parties and regional governments must therefore pledge to give priority to the social sectors.

80 See Sucupia and Mello (1999) for a brief discussion of Brazil's experience with participatory budget process. Osmani (2002) examined analytical issues pertaining to accountability and transparency in the budgetary process and the role of participation in the light of a number of case studies.

Box 5.2 – Variations in poverty conditions among districts in Indonesia, 2002

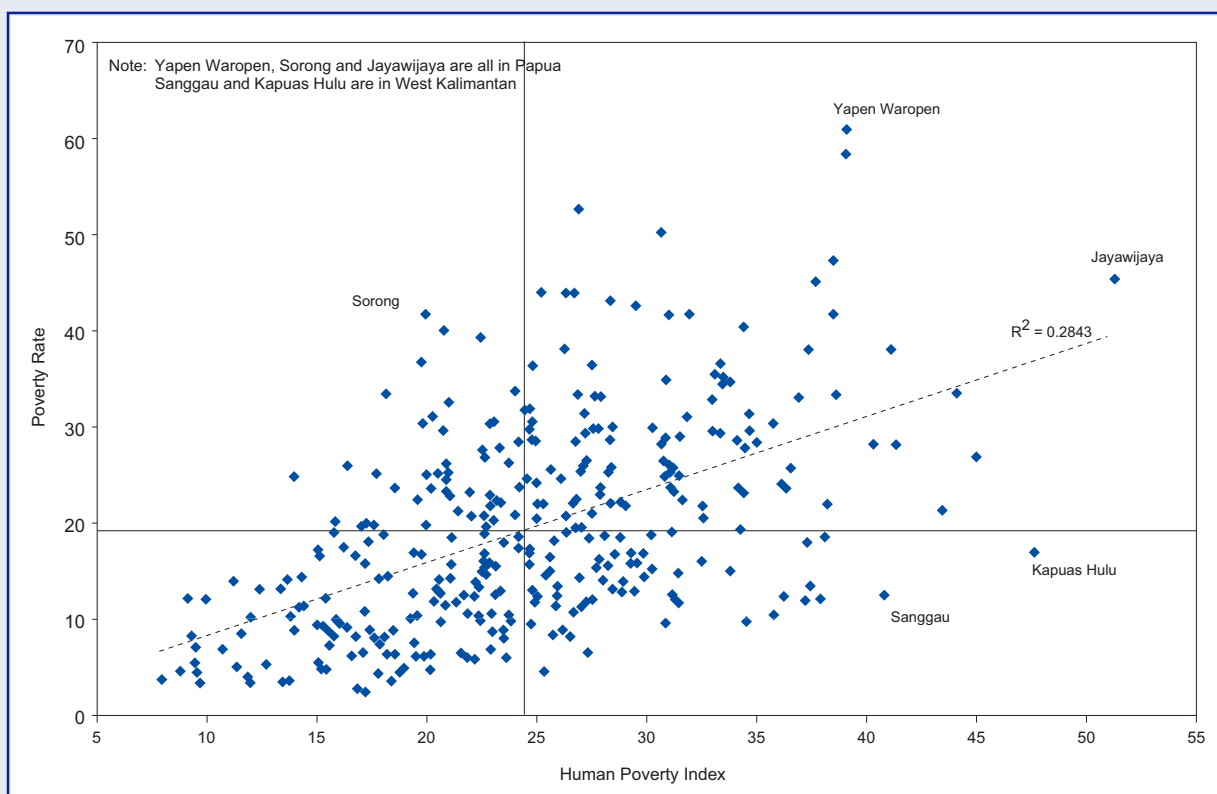
Indonesia shows a wide variation in poverty conditions across the country. Box Figure 5.1 illustrates this by comparing the rates of income poverty and human poverty. As explained in chapter 2, the income poverty rate is the proportion of the population lying below the poverty line. The human poverty index, on the other hand, is a combined measure of deprivation - in literacy and longevity and in various aspects of a decent standard of living (including child nutrition and access to safe water and health facilities).

As the figure shows, there is a strikingly large range of inter-district variations in both income poverty and human poverty. Moreover, these two poverty dimensions seem to some extent to be correlated: the highest rates for both being in Yapen Waropen and Jayawijaya in Papua. Similarly, districts with low levels of income-poverty also tend to have low levels of human poverty, as shown by the concentration of districts in the lower-left quadrant of the figure. This is not surprising since human deprivation in its many forms tends to be associated with low average income. The different aspects of deprivation also interact to reinforce each other.

However it could also be argued that the correlation (0.28) is lower than might be expected. In fact, districts vary in the effectiveness of the ways they have tackled these two types of poverty. Some regions that have had some success in reducing income poverty have had less impact on human poverty. Kapuas Hulu and Sanggau in West Kalimantan are two notable examples. On the other hand districts like Sorong in Papua demonstrate that, even in the presence of high income-poverty, modest progress can be made in reducing the non-income dimensions of poverty.

There seems to be, however, a limit to which human poverty can be reduced without reducing income-poverty. The scatter of the districts in the upper-left quadrant suggests that, with a high level of income poverty, it may become increasingly difficult to make progress in reducing human poverty. Efforts to strengthen service delivery in health and education thus need to be combined with measures to help the poor increase their incomes - though the precise combination required will vary from district to district.

Box Figure 5.1 – Regional poverty rates and human poverty indices



A National Summit for human development

Since its financial crisis Indonesia has undergone a systemic transition that involves not just economic restructuring but also dramatic political and social changes. There have been some notable successes, not least in keeping this disparate nation together. But the price of immediate survival has been to create the potential for widening disparities between rich and poor regions. In the long term this will prove unsustainable. Indonesia has to arrive at a new consensus on the core rights of all citizens – which can be achieved by holding a National Social Summit for human development.

As this report has demonstrated, Indonesia suffered serious setbacks to development as a result of the 1997 financial crisis and its aftermath. The government did respond quickly with an emergency social safety net. And standards of human development more or less returned to pre-crisis levels. Nevertheless, Indonesia still lies in the lower half of the global human development table – ranked 112 out of 175 countries – and lags behind comparable ASEAN neighbours such as Malaysia, Thailand and the Philippines. Since Indonesia's rate of progress remains slow the gaps are likely to widen further.

There have also been widening gaps within Indonesia. The recovery has been very uneven. Generally the regions that already had higher HDIs have made faster progress than those with the lower HDIs. Thus, between 1999 and 2002, the highest ranking province, DKI Jakarta, improved its HDI value at an annual rate of 2.2% while the lowest ranking province improved only at an annual rate of 1.5%. The picture is even starker at the district level. Although most districts managed annual increases in their HDIs of between 1.5% and 2%, some 18 districts saw their HDIs fall. In some cases disparities have also become more evident as a result of the splitting of districts: the better off parts registering an increase in HDI while the worse experience decreases.

These disparities will also be reflected in the

achievements of the MDGs. Thus although Indonesia as a whole will hit many of the MDG targets for 2015, the poorer districts are likely to miss them. Extrapolating from historical experience, the 2001 National Human Development Report (NHDR), concluded, for example that the provinces of Bengkulu and West Kalimantan would take 148 and 124 years respectively to achieve the MDG target of access to clean water.

In addition to regional disparities there are also marked disparities between social groups. Even before the economic crisis infant mortality was three times higher among the poor than the rich. And the richest 20% were also spending eight times more on privately provided health services. Literacy and enrolment rates are also higher among the rich than the poor. At the heart of all these disparities are the effects of poverty. Although the overall poverty rate has dropped back from its peak during the crisis, it is still around 18%, with probably a further 30% of the population capable of falling below the poverty line at any time.

Public expenditure and human development

As the previous chapter has illustrated, progress in human development can be the result both of economic growth and of government spending on public services. Historically, Indonesia has largely depended on the economic channel: rapid income growth from the early 1970s to the late 1990s allowed individuals to spend more on health and education. Meanwhile the government spent relatively little on services such as health, education and public safety and order.

This imbalance has contributed to a significant health and education divide. This is because the benefits of public spending tend to be spread fairly evenly but those from private spending are inevitably skewed towards the rich – unlike the situation in Thailand and the Philippines, for example, which spend significantly more on public health and basic education. Indonesia also underspends on

physical security – which contributes to low morale and a lack of professionalism among security personnel. This has hit the poor especially hard since they cannot afford to make private security arrangements.

Is it possible to increase public spending on human development during a period of slow economic recovery? How much more is needed and what would be the implications for the sustainability of the state budget? Chapter four of this report has shown that the cost of delivering basic human development rights is not inordinately high. As a proportion of GDP it would require an increase in public social sector expenditure from 3% to around 6% – which would bring Indonesia's public social expenditure into line with that in Malaysia, Thailand and the Philippines.

These extra resources could be mobilized in a number of ways. The first priority should be to increase efficiency – both in revenue collection and in the administration of public expenditure. Then the government should be looking for new forms of tax revenue. In the interim, it should consider running a small budget deficit. Such a deficit is unlikely to be destabilising. Quite the contrary, since improvements in human development can underpin both social stability and economic growth. And when the virtuous circle between human development and economic growth sets in, it then becomes possible to increase public social expenditure from the resulting increases in tax revenue.

The regional dimension

The responsibility for basic health and education has now passed to district governments. If they are to fulfil these rights adequately they will need substantial increases in their budgets. Figure 6.1, for example, shows that for a significant number of districts – those above the diagonal line – the cost of achieving the 'education for all' targets outlined in chapter four is considerably above not just their current education budgets but also their total budget. Clearly they will need to be allocated extra funds from the centre through a mechanism that takes better account of local needs.

The current formula for calculating the general grant, the *Dana Alokasi Umum* (DAU) does not take need strongly into account. This is illustrated in figure 6.2 which plots the per capita DAU for each district against the HDI and shows that there is no strong relationship between the two: many districts with high HDIs also received high DAUs, while districts like Jayawijaya and Sampang with very low HDIs received disproportionately low per capita DAUs. There are some attempts underway to address these mismatches by revising some aspects of the decentralization laws and the grant formulae – which hopefully will make the grants more appropriate to needs.

This will inevitably involve a degree of cross-subsidization, with the richer regions and sections of the community helping the poorer ones. Cross-subsidization is nothing new in Indonesia. The *Inpres* grants from the

Figure 6.1 – Comparison of estimated ideal cost of 9 years education with regional budget (Rp. million)

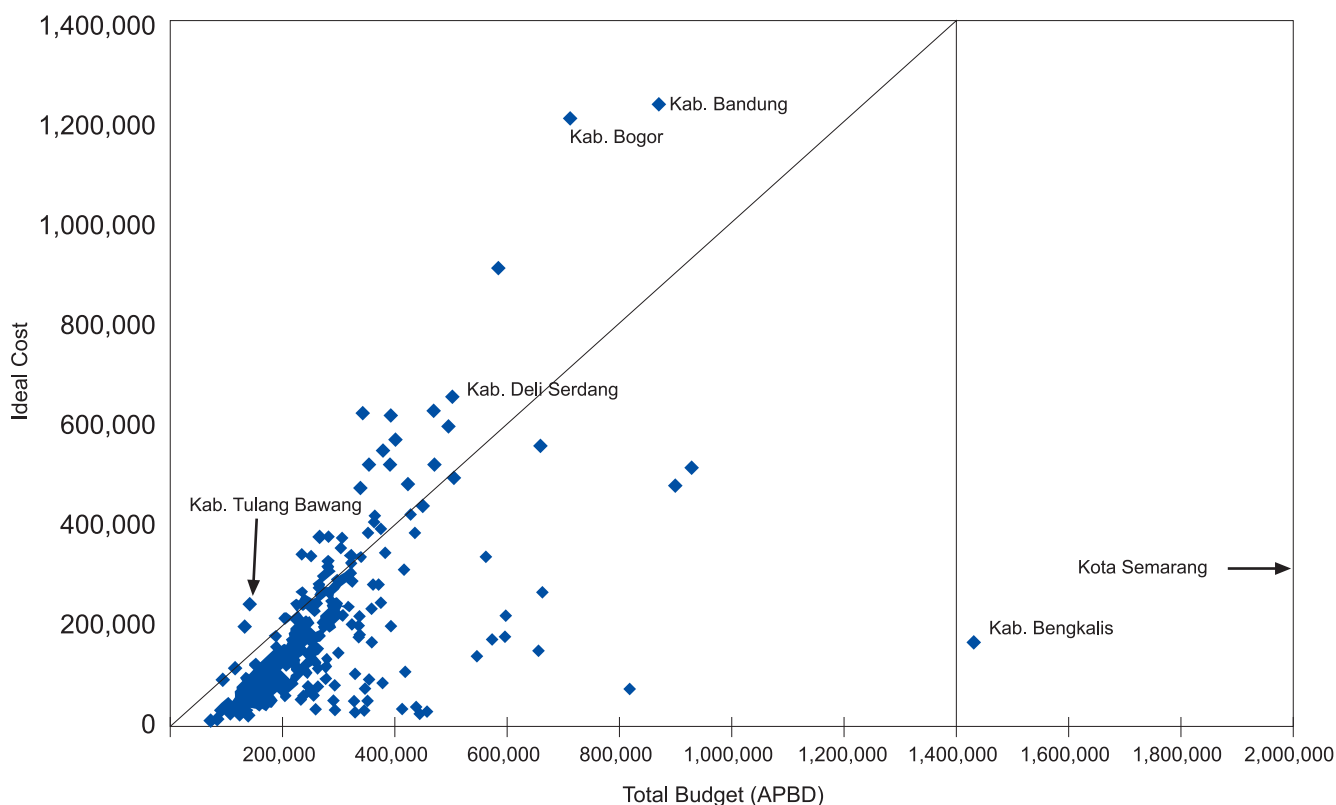
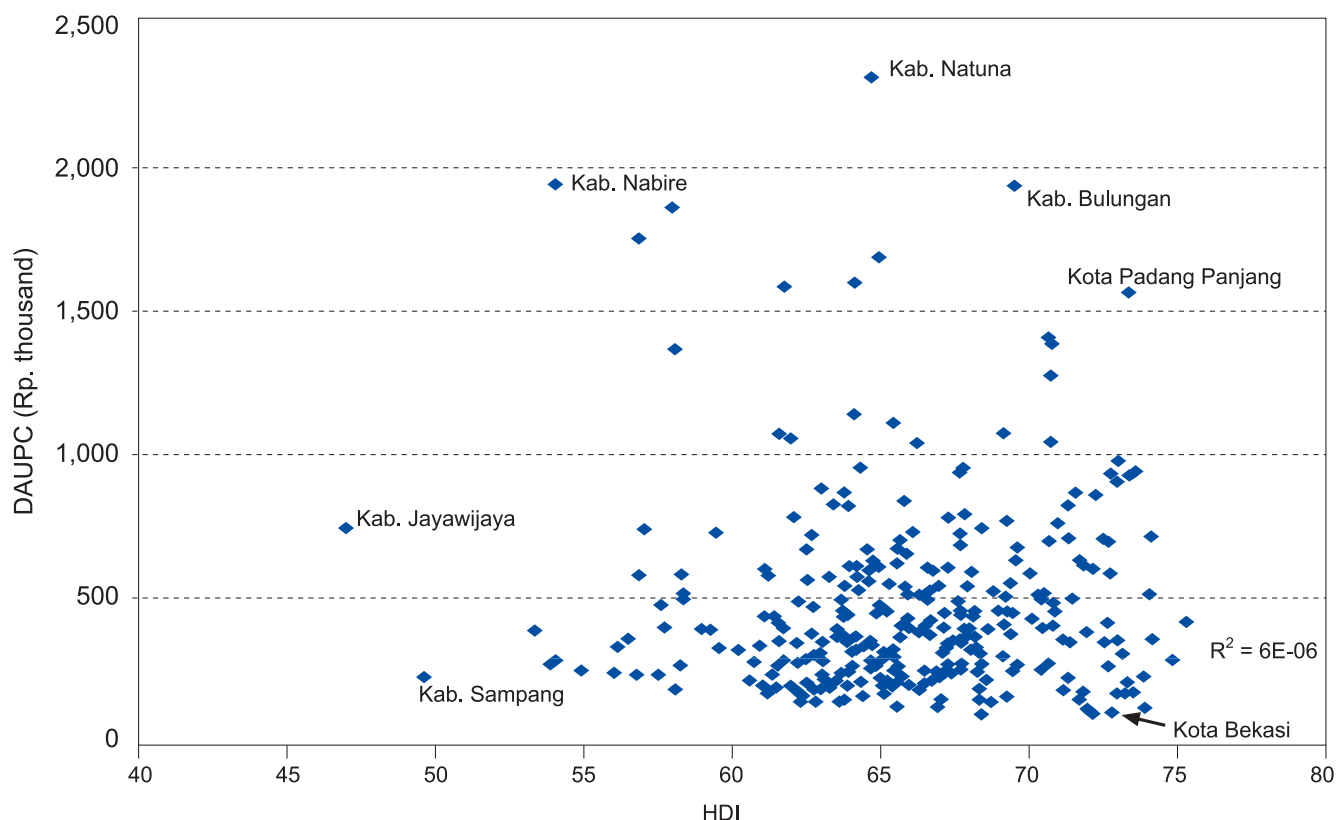


Figure 6.2 – Per capita general allocation (DAU) and HDI



Box 6.1 – The DAU formula for 2003

DAU = Minimum Allocation + Fiscal Gap (after indexing)

Minimum Allocation = Lump sum + Civil servant salary

Fiscal Gap = Fiscal Capacity - Fiscal Need

Fiscal Capacity = PAD + BHP + BHSDA

- PAD is the estimated region owned revenue
- BHP is the share of tax include share of Income tax, share of land and building tax, and other taxes
- BHSDA is the share of natural resources (royalty and tax)

Fiscal Need = $(IP \cdot 0.4 + IKR \cdot 0.1 + IW \cdot 0.1 + IH \cdot 0.4) \cdot \text{Base amount}$

■ Need related to population:

- ◆ Population Index (IP)
IP = Number of population in the region divided by the average population
- ◆ Relative Poverty Index (IKR)
IKR used the poverty gap and head-count index (poverty rate) to establish income gap

■ Need related to area

- ◆ Area Width Index (IW)
IW = Width of the region area divided by the average width of area
- ◆ Price Index (IH) from Construction Price Index (IKK)
IH = IKK in the region divided by the average IKK
IKK has been estimated by BPS

• Note: the Ministry of Finance plans to add the index of education need based on the cohort of basic education (primary + junior secondary school)

• EXTRA NOTE: the rule of "no harm" still applies to this DAU.

centre, for example, played a significant role in reducing regional disparities. But these were based on unilateral decisions taken at the centre rather than on negotiations with the regions. As a result many resource-rich regions felt frustrated and started to demand a larger share – voicing their ‘aspiration to inequality’.

There has been less cross-subsidization through the tax system. Many of the richest people and corporations evade their tax responsibilities. This can be ascribed not just to corruption and the lack of transparency and accountability but also to the lack of social consensus around a common purpose.

A National Summit for human development

How can Indonesia arrive at such a consensus? The first NHDR proposed holding a National Summit for Human Development to forge a burden-sharing agreement that might bring lagging regions up to the human development average. Such an agreement presupposes an accord on citizens’ core economic and social rights. At the central level at least there is already some kind of consensus. Indonesia has, after all, committed itself to the Millennium Development Goals and has also taken a stand on poverty by finalizing its Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP). But these initiatives, along with those on minimum service standards, still have the crucial flaw that they are centrally driven: as yet, regional governments have had few opportunities to commit themselves to these goals and strategies.

Instead there needs to be a process of consultation across the country. This can be similar to what happens after the creation of a new nation-state. Almost every country on the threshold of independence has held a national convention to agree a common purpose that eventually takes the form of a constitution. South Africa’s new democratic era, for example was followed by a series of national summits of stakeholders on issues such as education, health, employment, poverty and sustainable development – culminating in a ‘Growth and Development Summit’. To some extent this has happened in Indonesia too: the fall of the New Order regime has prompted a national debate on constitutional amendments. However, given the country’s ethnic and regional diversity this debate now needs to take on a stronger regional dimension.

International evidence suggests that ethnically diverse countries tend to spend less on social development and other public goods because they cannot agree on what constitutes a public good, and even if they do manage to reach a compromise, the members of each faction value such an agreement less than would the citizens of a more homogenous society. They thus enter in a vicious circle

of under-investment in public goods, poor governance and a lack of social progress that eventually retards economic progress.⁸¹

Indonesia needs a National Summit for Human Development that first agrees on the list of essential public goods and the level at which they should be provided. It should then consider various targets and the timelines for their achievement. Every level of government should then commit itself to the implied level of social spending.

This kind of agreement will not only promote human development and long-term economic growth it will also be vital for the urgent task of consolidating democracy. Surveys in new democracies around the world reveal that support for democracy is weakest among the poor, uneducated and socially disadvantaged.⁸² In Indonesia too democracy will only become more meaningful to the half of the population who are vulnerable to poverty if it helps to resolve their social and economic problems.

Once Indonesians have agreed on the appropriate level of public social expenditure, they must then consider ways of mobilizing resources. They should discuss what should be taxed and at what rates and also consider the revenue-raising capacity of the regions. This will then raise the difficult question of cross-subsidization. While the richer regions may believe this merely implies sacrifices on their part they also need to be made aware of the dangers to national stability of allowing other regions to lag far behind. Indonesia’s founding fathers’ chose as their motto for nation building ‘unity in diversity’ – a vision that remains valuable to this day.

Preparatory steps

While a summit would be valuable in itself probably more important would be the process leading up to such a meeting. A rights-based approach demands extensive participation, from a broad cross-section of the Indonesian people – local communities, NGOs and political representatives. The start of this process at the local level could therefore be for every district to engage upon a participatory assessment of its own needs. How this is done would depend to a large extent on the capacities of different regions. The likelihood is that much of the effort would need to come from government workers, political representatives, and particularly from NGOs. A number of regions have already organized people’s fora and these could be replicated elsewhere. But this exercise should in itself help engage more people in a broader political process.

Preparation for the National Summit for Human Development could thus include a number of steps:

- Consultations between national-level organizations, including associations of *bupatis* and *walikotas*, representatives of central government ministries,

81 See Mauro (1995), La Porta et al (1998), Alesina, Baqir & Easterly (1999) and Easterly, Ritzen and Woolcock (2001) for research findings that relate poor institution and low public social expenditure to ethnic diversity. Easterly (2003) analyzes Pakistan’s failure in social development despite high growth and relates it to the country’s ethnic diversity. On the other hand, the success of Mauritius, an ethnically diverse society, can be attributed to a large extent to the social compact between various groups at the time of independence (see Subramaniam & Roy, 2003). Chowdhury & Islam (1996) also trace Malaysia’s social and economic development to a consensus between different communities which helped attain independence in a peaceful manner.

82 UNDP (2004), *Report on Democracy in Latin America*.

research institutions, and national civil society organizations.

- A designated national organization prepares guidelines for how the process could proceed at a local level. This would, for example, specify possible targets that each district should be aiming for.
- BPS gathers and disseminates the latest district-level data.
- Preliminary meetings in each district and municipality to decide how the process should proceed.
- The start of participatory local assessments, at district level, involving local officials, members of DPRD, and NGOs and other representatives of civil society.
- Preparation of 'State of the district' reports, highlighting the main needs and estimating budgetary requirements for meeting the chosen targets.
- Preparation of a summary 'State of the Regions' report to serve as the main background document for the National Summit for Human Development.

The aim of the summit itself would be to reassess the relationship between the central government and the regions and recommend how a decentralized Indonesia could meet human development goals. Among other things it could:

- Reaffirm a national commitment to human development.
- Establish the basic minimum guarantees that Indonesians should be able to offer each other.

- Identify major problem areas, both geographically and sectorally, that have arisen in the State of the Regions report.
- Agree national and local targets to be achieved by 2015.
- Recommend the preferred form of financing for basic services such as health and education.
- Recommend an ongoing reporting system to monitor achievement towards the goals.

Conclusion

Over the past six years Indonesia has moved from an autocratic system of government which contained regional dissent by force to one that attempts to achieve the same result through a liberal democratic system. The formal process of decentralization is an important step in this direction but it goes only part of the way. Indonesia still lacks a common purpose and a national consensus. Without this there is a danger that decentralization, far from containing regional dissent and the pressure for secession, could eventually open up new fault lines that would again put national survival in jeopardy.

A National Summit for Human Development would help build the necessary consensus – about what it means to be a citizen of Indonesia. This would not only give further impetus to decentralization but also help promote national unity, forge a sense of common purpose – and both widen and deepen Indonesian democracy.

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The concept and measurement of human Development

“People are the real wealth of a nation. The basic objective of development is to create an enabling environment for people to enjoy long, healthy, and creative lives. This may appear to be a simple truth. But it is often forgotten in the immediate concern with the accumulation of commodities and financial wealth.”

Those opening lines of the first Human Development Report (HDR), published by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in 1990, clearly stressed the primary message of every HDR at global, national and sub-national levels – the human-centred approach to development – that places human well being as the ultimate end of development, not the means of development. Unlike previous concepts of development which have often given exclusive attention to economic growth, on the assumption that growth will ultimately benefit people, human development introduces a broader and more comprehensive concept, covering all human choices at all societies at all stages of development. It broadens the development dialogue from a discussion of mere means (GNP growth) to a discussion of the ultimate ends. It draws its inspiration from the long-term goals of a society and weaves development around people, not people around development.

As defined in the first HDR of 1990, human development is a process of enlarging people's choices. The most critical of these wide-ranging choices are to live a long and healthy life, to be educated and to have access to resources needed for a decent standard of living. Other important choices include political freedom, guaranteed human rights and personal self-respect. Thus, human development concerns more than the formation of human capabilities, such as improved health and knowledge. It also concerns the use people make of their acquired capabilities – for leisure, productive purposes, or being active in cultural, social and political affairs. Human development has to balance these concerns.

Human development requires freedom. The objective of increasing people's choices cannot be achieved without people actually being free to choose what they want to be and how they want to live. People must be free to exercise their choices in properly functioning markets, and they must have decisive voices in shaping their political frameworks. People who are politically free can ensure their participation in planning and decision-making through democratic rule that leads towards consensus and consolidation rather than

being dictated to by an autocratic elite. Here, human development and human rights share a common vision and a common purpose – to secure the freedom, well-being and dignity of all people everywhere.

To avoid any confusion, it is necessary to clearly delineate the difference between this way of looking at development and the conventional approaches to economic growth, human capital formation, human resource development, human welfare or basic needs. The concept of human development is much broader than the conventional theories of economic development.

‘Economic growth’ models deal with expanding the GNP rather than with enhancing the quality of human lives. ‘Human resource development’ treats human beings primarily as inputs in the production process – as means rather than as ends. The ‘welfare’ approach looks at human beings as beneficiaries and not as agents of change in the development process. Finally, the ‘basic needs’ approach focuses on providing material goods and services to deprived population groups rather than on enlarging human choices in all fields.

Box 1

Four essential components of the human development paradigm

The human development paradigm contains four main components:

- **Productivity.** People must be enabled to increase their productivity and participate fully in the process of income generation and remunerative employment. Economic growth is, therefore, a subset of human development models.
- **Equity.** People must have access to equal opportunities. All barriers to economic and political opportunities must be eliminated so that people can participate in, and benefit from, these opportunities.
- **Sustainability.** Access to opportunities must be ensured not only for the present generations but for future generation as well. All forms of capital - physical, human, environmental - should be replenished.
- **Empowerment.** Development must be by the people, not only for them. People must participate fully in the decisions and processes that shape their lives.

(HDR 1995, page 12)

The human development approach brings together the production and distribution of commodities and the expansion as well as the use of human capabilities. It analyses all issues in society – whether economic growth, trade, employment, political freedom or cultural values – from the perspective of people. It also encompasses the critical issue of gender. Human development is thus not merely the concern of the social sector. It is a comprehensive approach to all sectors.

Human development has four major elements – productivity, equity, sustainability and empowerment (Box 1). Through enhanced capabilities, the creativity and productivity of people must be increased so that they become effective agents of growth. Economic growth must be combined with equitable distribution of its benefits. Equitable opportunities must be available to both present and to future generations. And all people, women and men, must be empowered to participate in the design and implementation of key decisions that shape their lives.

Human development goes beyond economic growth, but it is not anti-growth. From a human development perspective, economic growth is not an end in itself. Rather is a means to an end – enlarging people's choices. There is, however, no automatic link between income growth and human progress. In the short run, even in the absence of satisfactory economic growth, countries can achieve significant improvements in human development through well-structured public expenditure. However, it is wrong to suggest that economic growth is unnecessary for human development. In the long run, no sustained improvement is possible without growth.ⁱ

Human development concerns are not merely focused on the rate of growth but also on its distribution. Thus, the issue is not only *how much* economic growth, but also *what kind* of growth. More attention should be directed to the structure and quality of that growth – to ensure that it is directed to supporting the improvement of human well being for both present and future generations. The main preoccupation of development policies then should be how such a link can be created and reinforced.

Translating the human development concept into policy

The incorporation of the human development concept into development policies does not necessarily lead to a complete departure from earlier development strategies that aimed at, among others, accelerating economic growth, reducing absolute poverty and preventing a deterioration in the physical environment. The difference, from the human development standpoint, lies in the clustering of all the previous objectives around the central goal of enlarging human choices.

From time to time, the HDRs have made strong policy recommendations for both international and national agendas.

The primary aim of the global proposals is to contribute to a new paradigm of sustainable human development that is based on a new concept of human security, a new partnership of developed and developing countries, new forms of international cooperation and a new global compact. Meanwhile, the national proposals have focused on the centrality of people in the development process, on the need for a new partnership between the state and the market and on new forms of alliance between governments, institutions of civil society, communities and people.

The human development approach also has tremendous potential for analysing situations and policies at the national level. By 1999 – ten years after the publication of the first HDR – more than 260 national and sub-national human development reports had been produced in 120 countries.

In each country these served to bring together the facts, influence national policy, and mobilize action. The 1998 South Africa human development report, for example, provided information on how the fast-spreading HIV epidemics will affect human development. In India, due to its high level of regional disparities, UNDP India has supported the preparation of human development reports by state governments.

The human development concept has also caught the attention of Indonesia's policy makers. Compared to the traditional economic approach that primarily focuses on increasing production and productivity, the human development approach has a closer association to the primary objective of developing every aspect of humanity or "*pembangunan manusia seutuhnya*" as stated in the 1993 state guidelines (*GBHN*). The human development index also offers a more reliable and comprehensive measure of development progress than the single measure of growth in per capita GDP.

Several attempts have been made to introduce the human development concept and to apply this approach to Indonesia's development process. The first step was to make the data set available. In 1996, the Indonesian Central Bureau of Statistics (BPS) published the 1990 and 1993 human development indices for the provincial levels, followed in 1997 by a release of the 1996 index, and this was continued with the 2001 publication. This inter-provincial comparison attracted a lot of attention, particularly from the high-growth provinces that happened to rank low in human development. This controversy, however, successfully triggered greater regional awareness of the weaknesses of the traditional economic approach to development and has focused regional attention on people-centred development.

In 1997, to promote the adoption of the human development approach into the regional planning process, the Indonesian Government – i.e. the Directorate General of Regional Planning, the Ministry of Home Affairs and BPS – with the support of UNDP Indonesia initiated a pilot programme that covered 9 provinces and 18 districts

ⁱ The correlation between economic growth and human development was intensively explored in the series of HDRs since its first publication in 1990. The 1996 HDR, in particular, is primarily focused on the discussion of this issue

(Table 1). This 18-month pilot program was integrated into the 'Eastern Indonesia Decentralized Development Programme' with the primary aim of orienting regional development planning toward human development, and enhancing the capacity of regional planning agencies (BAPPEDA) to coordinate regional development planning. For this purpose, the project provided training, manuals and planning consultants to assist the regional government in adopting a human development approach in their planning process. Through this effort the human development approach has been integrated into the existing development planning mechanism – the *P5D* (Guidelines for Planning and Managing Development Process at Regional Level) – and the human development index has been incorporated into the regional planning document – the '*Pola Dasar Pembangunan Daerah*' -.

BPS produced the data set for all provinces and later on, as part of the pilot project, for all districts. This has focused the attention not only of the governments of the pilot regions, but also of the non-pilot regions. However, the internalisation of the human development concept has been hindered by the fact that the central government still tends to use the traditional economic approach which merely focuses on per capita GRDP (Gross Regional Domestic Product). When the pilot project ended, no further systematic attempt was made to disseminate this concept.

The most recent decentralisation efforts, however, have raised concerns that the regional governments may neglect long-term social development, since they have a tendency to focus on short-term economic (revenue raising) activities. It is important therefore to ensure that the human development concept is used as an advocacy tool for sustainable regional development.

Refinements in the statistical measurement of human development

If the human development concept is to be translated into policymaking, it must be easily measured and monitored. Over the years the global HDRs have developed and refined the statistical measurement of human development. Nevertheless there remain many difficulties in reducing the holistic concept of human development to one number. Consequently, it is important to be aware that the *concept* of human development is much deeper and richer than its *measurement*. It is impossible to come up with a comprehensive measure – or even a comprehensive set of indicators – because many vital dimensions of human development are non-quantifiable. A simple composite measure of human development, can certainly draw attention to the issue quite effectively, but it needs to be supplemented by analyses to capture other important dimensions that cannot be easily quantified.

In the first HDR (1990) the index combined national income (as a proxy of standard of living) with two social indicators – life expectancy (representing longevity) and the adult literacy rate (representing knowledge). The index was thus an approximation that tried to capture the many dimensions of human choice. But it still had some of the same shortcomings as the income measures, notably that its national averages concealed regional and local disparities.

From time to time, efforts have been made to refine the HDI, although the three basic components – longevity, knowledge and a decent living standard – have been maintained to retain the basic simplicity of the original HDI concept. The second HDR (1991) added a new indicator – mean years of schooling – to the knowledge component. This variable was given a weight of one-

Table 1

HDI, GDI and HP-1 – Same component, different measurements (global HDR norms)

	Longevity	Knowledge	Decent standard of living
HDI	Life expectancy at birth	1. Adult literacy rate 2. Combined enrolment ratio ^{*)}	Adjusted per capita income in PPP\$ ^{*)}
GDI	Female and male life expectancy at birth	1. Female and male adult literacy rate 2. Female and male combined enrolment ratio ^{*)}	Female and male earned income share
HPI-1	Percentage of people not expected to survive to age 40	Illiteracy rate	Deprivation in economic provisioning, measured by: 1. Percentage of people without access to water and health services. 2. Percentage of people without access to health services 3. Percentage of underweight children under the age of five.

^{*)} Minor adjustments in measurements made in the calculation of this indicator as presented in this publication (see the following sub-section for detail explanation).

HDI, HPI-1, GDI and GEM

Human Development Index (HDI)

The HDI measures the overall achievements in a country in three basic dimensions of human development - longevity, knowledge and a decent standard of living. It is measured by life expectancy, education attainment and adjusted income.

Human Poverty Index (HPI-1)

The HPI-1 measures poverty in developing countries. The variables used are the percentage of people expected to die before age 40, the percentage of adults who are illiterate and deprivation in overall economic provisioning - public and private - reflected by the percentage of people without access to health services and safe water and the percentage of underweight children under the age of five.

(HDR, 1998, page 15)

Gender-related Development Index (GDI)

The GDI measures achievements in the same dimensions and variables as the HDI, but captures inequalities in achievement between women and men. It is simply the HDI adjusted downward for gender inequality. The greater the gender disparity in basic human development, the lower a country's GDI compared with its HDI

Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM)

The GEM reveals whether women can take active part in economic and political life. It focuses on participation, measuring gender inequality in key areas of economic and political participation and decision-making. It tracks the percentages of women in parliament, among administrators and managers and among professional and technical workers - and women's earned income share as a percentage of men's. Differing from the GDI, it exposes inequality in opportunities in selected areas.

third, while adult literacy was given a weight of two-thirds. This acknowledged the importance of having a high level of skill formation and also greatly helped in differentiating countries clustered in the higher ranks. In the 1995 HDR, however, this variable was replaced by the combined primary, secondary and tertiary enrolment ratios because the latter were more readily available and did not need a complex formula for calculation.

With regard to the indicator that represented decent living standards, the first HDR used purchasing power, adjusted for real GDP per capita. This was the most widely available data that could provide an approximation of the relative power to buy commodities and to gain command over resources for a decent living standard. In 1991, the idea of diminishing returns to income was incorporated by giving a progressively lower weight to income beyond the poverty cut-off point, rather than the zero weight previously given. Until 1993, this poverty cut-off point was derived from the poverty-level income in industrial countries, with values updated and translated into purchasing power parity dollars (PPP\$). From the 1994 HDI onwards, the threshold value has been taken to be the current average global value of real GDP per capita in PPP\$.

Besides the refinements in HDI computation methods, the HDRs have also tried to take into account the distribution aspect by measuring income-distribution-adjusted HDIs and gender-disparity-adjusted HDIs. This had the effect of significantly shifting the rankings of some countries depending on their levels of disparity. Meanwhile other indices have also been developed. The 1995 HDR, for example, introduced the Gender related Development Index (GDI) and the Gender Empowerment Measures

(GEM) to better capture the extend of gender equality. In 1997, the HDR presented another human deprivation measure – the Human Poverty Index (HPI) – to reflect the extent of progress and highlight the backlog of deprivation. In principle, the HDI, GDI and HPI all have the same components – longevity, knowledge and a decent standard of living – but use different measurements (Table 1).

Estimating the sub-national human development indices in Indonesia

In 1996, BPS and UNDP Indonesia published, for the first time, the Indonesian inter-provincial comparison of human development indices for 1990 and 1993.ⁱⁱ Since the main data source, the socio-economic survey (Susenas), was not available before 1990, the index was not compiled for earlier periods. Due to the limitation on data availability, this first publication focused only on the human development index and was not yet able to present other indices. In principle, the method used in this first attempt followed the one applied by UNDP in constructing the 1994 HDI. Some modifications, however, were unavoidable, particularly with regard to the construction of provincial standards of living. While UNDP used adjusted real per capita GDP as a proxy for income, this publication used adjusted per capita real expenditure (provincial average), obtained from Susenas and measured in 1988/89 constant prices. This ensured comparability, both inter-regional and across time. A targeted level to be achieved by the end of the second long term development period (2018) was set as the maximum value, and the selection of the income threshold values was adjusted so as to be suitable for the situation in Indonesia.

ii See "Human Development Index (HDI) of Indonesia: Provincial Comparison 1990-1993", BPS and UNDP, 1996.

A revised version and more complete figures were published in 1997. The Summary of the Indonesian Human Development Report 1996 contained the revised figure for 1990 and the figures for 1996. Besides the HDI figures, this publication also presents provincial GDIs, and GEMs for 1990 and 1996 as well as the HPIs for 1990 and 1995. The HDI figure in this publication, however, is not comparable with the HDI figure in the previous publication because of methodological changes, notably in the base year used in the computation of the adjusted per capita real expenditure. The previous publication used 1988/89 as the base year, while the 1997 publication and this publication have 1993 as the basis. As part of the pilot project for the development of the human development index and its application to regional development planning, in June 1999, BPS and the Directorate General of Regional Development and the Ministry of Home Affairs published district level figures for 1990 and 1996.ⁱⁱⁱ

The 1996 HDI figure presented in the 1997 publication was slightly different from the figure in the 1999 publication and in this publication. This difference is due to the calculation of life expectancy at birth which basically extrapolated the figures on infant mortality obtained from a series of surveys and censuses (see technical note for a detailed explanation). In the 1997 publication, the life expectancy figure is less accurate because it was based on the 1971, 1980 and 1990 Population Censuses, while the 1999 publication, as presented in this report, includes the data from the 1995 Population Survey between Censuses and the 1996 Social Economic Survey. It is also of particular importance to note that the 1999 life expectancy figure in this publication is based on the projection of the 1971, 1980 and 1990 Population Censuses, the 1995 Population Survey between Censuses, and the 1996 Social Economic Survey, in addition to the census data mentioned above. It is also of particular importance to note that the 1999 life expectancy figure in this publication is an estimate based on past trends and does not take into account the possible impacts of the latest economic crisis. This publication uses the results of the 2000 Population Census and extrapolates them to 2002.

The methods used in this publication follow the UNDP methods as much as possible, to ensure comparability with the international figure. However, due to data availability and for other substantive reasons, some modifications from the global method are necessary.

Among the differences is the measurement of educational attainment component in the HDI. As mentioned earlier, after 1995 the global report replaced mean years of schooling with the combined primary, secondary and tertiary gross enrolment rates. This report, however, still uses mean years of schooling. This is for several reasons. First, for time-series comparisons, as reliable data on the combined gross enrolment rate in the previous year are not readily available. Second, mean years of schooling (MYS) is a better impact indicator than the gross enrolment rate which is usually considered as a process indicator. So the MYS will be more stable than the enrolment rate which tends to fluctuate more. However, the MYS is not sufficiently sensitive to capture the short-term impact of the crisis on school attendance. This would only be captured if the crisis caused permanent dropouts from school. To fill this gap, this report also presents the age groups school participation rate and school drop out rate.

The other departure from global methods is the database used as a proxy of income. The global report uses per capita GDP while this report uses per capita expenditure. This is primarily due to the fact that the per capita GRDP, an equivalent measure of per capita GDP at sub-national level, does not represent the real purchasing power of the community. Inter-regional economic integration is so high that even though the GRDP captures the regional output, it does not guarantee that this output is distributed mainly among local people. In this regard, the per capita expenditure data obtained from the social economic survey is a better proxy of the purchasing power of local people. To ensure that it is comparable across regions and over time, this data is refined using a standard procedure as presented in great detail in the technical note.

Box 3

The steps taken to improve the figures/indicators

1. The kabupatens in conflicting areas such as Nangroe Aceh Darussalam, Maluku, North Maluku, Papua with blank indicators shall have them filled out from the result of calculation of 2003 Susenas data.
2. Fill out blank kabupatens figures/indicators based on the previous year trend of figures/indicators
3. Improve the figures/indicators in some kabupatens/cities with unreasonable trends
4. Improve the real figures of expenditure by discarding the extreme ones (outlier)
5. Calculate national figures for all indicators.

Note: Improved or filled out figures/indicators shall be marked with shadow.

iii This publication is in *Bahasa Indonesia* and the title is “*Indeks Pembangunan Manusia Kabupaten dan Kota di Seluruh Indonesia*”.

What do the human development indices reveal?

The HDI the GDI the GEM and the HPI are composite indices that are calculated using a set of linked component indicators. These indices were introduced by UNDP in the Human Development Report and have been used to measure progress in human development in each country.

The same approach can be taken within Indonesia at the national, provincial and district levels. This is the second time this exercise has been carried out; the first covered the human development situation in Indonesia over the period 1996-99. The result was published in *Towards a new consensus, Democracy and Human Development in Indonesia, 2001*.

The calculation of this index is an important exercise since in the years ahead, as a result of regional autonomy, the responsibility for human development at both provincial and district levels has been passed to the regional governments and to the local people. Preparation of the index down to the district level can thus inform regional governments and local people about the human development conditions in their areas.

Human development index

The HDI is an aggregate index that shows the distance that each region has yet to travel in order to achieve the maximum level of 100. For a given region, the HDI shows the progress in human development and also the challenges that have to be faced and the efforts that have to be made to reduce the remaining distance. Between 1999 and 2002, Indonesia's HDI increased from 64.3 to 65.8 as a result of changes in the component indices – life expectancy, literacy, and real per capita income all showed increases (Figure 1). Mean years of schooling showed a significant increase of around 5%. Real per capita income, on the other hand, which it might have been hoped would have increased significantly as a result of improvements in Indonesia's macro economy in fact only increased by around 2%. At the same time the increases in life expectancy and literacy were also relatively small at around 2%. Overall the HDI for Indonesia increased by 2.3%.

Considering the distance yet to be travelled – the shortfall – the reduction during the period 1999-2002 was

Figure 1 – Changes in HDI components, 1999-2002

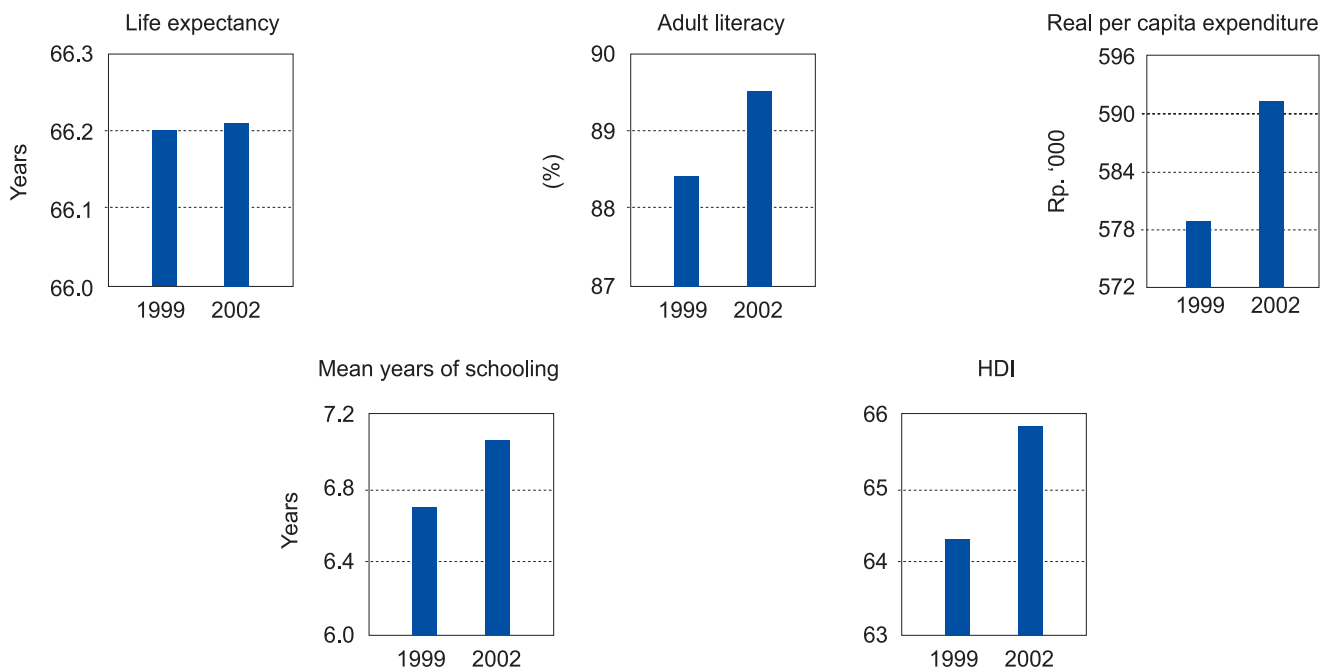


Figure 2 – HDI by province, 1999-2002

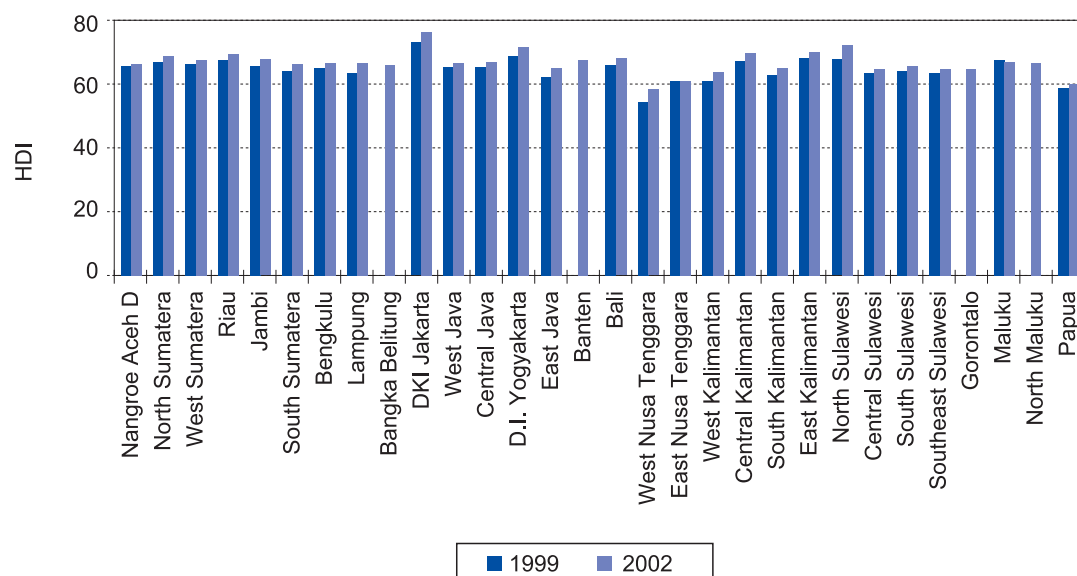


Figure 3 – HDI classification of provinces, 1996-2002

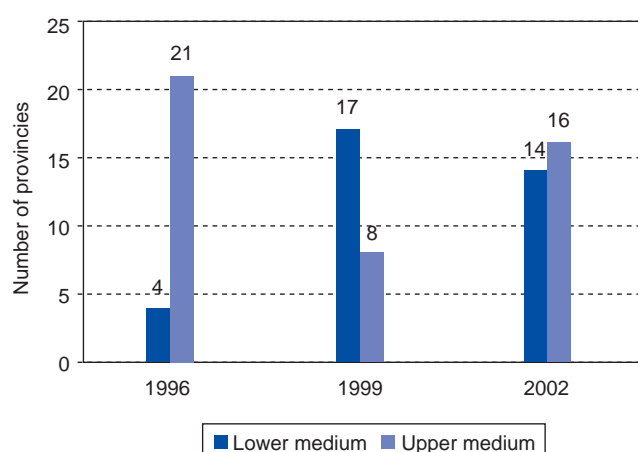
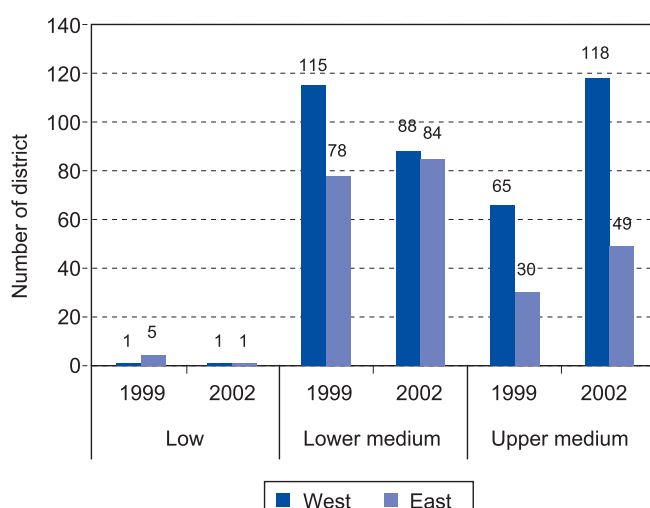


Figure 4 – Disparities between Western and Eastern districts, 1999-2002



1.6%. This is an improvement compared with the period 1996-99 when the shortfall actually increased.

Over the period 1999-2002 almost all provinces showed an increase in HDI (Figure 2). The exception was East Nusa Tenggara whose HDI scarcely changed. For Maluku, however, it was not possible to make this comparison because of changes in the provincial boundary. In this case the HDI for 1999 is that for what are now the provinces of Maluku and North Maluku which in 2002 each have their own HDIs.

Nevertheless none of Indonesia's 30 provinces can be considered as falling in the high HDI category according to the international standard (HDI above 80). On this basis, 14 provinces are in the 'lower-medium' HDI category (50-65.99) while 16 are in the 'upper-medium' category (66-79.99) (Figure 3).

Following the economic crisis which hit Indonesia in the middle of 1997, HDI levels fell. This is evident from consideration of the shortfall for the period 1996-99 which increased in all provinces except for East Nusa Tenggara (Table 1). In addition there have been boundary changes that can have the effect of increasing or reducing the HDI for a given region. For example, in 2002 without the districts which are now in Gorontalo, the HDI for North Sulawesi increased and its ranking also improved. The provinces that showed the greatest increase in the period 1999-2002 were North Sulawesi and DKI Jakarta.

At the district level, all districts showed changes in HDI over the period 1999-2002, whether increases or decreases. Several districts showed sharp increases with a number succeeding in reducing the shortfall by between 2.4% and 4.0% over this period—the lowest of these being in Kota Kupang and the highest in Banggai (Table 1).

Table 1 – Districts making the greatest progress, 1999-2002

District	Province	Reduction in shortfall 1999-2002
Banggai	Central Sulawesi	4.0
Paniai	Papua	2.9
Musi Banyuasin	South Sumatera	2.9
Nias	North Sumatera	2.8
Soppeng	South Sulawesi	2.6
South Central Timor	East Nusa Tenggara	2.6
Kota Sabang	Nangroe Aceh Darussalam	2.5
Dairi	North Sumatera	2.5
West Sumba	East Nusa Tenggara	2.4
Sikka	East Nusa Tenggara	2.4
North Lampung	Lampung	2.4
Tangerang	Banten	2.4
Belu	East Nusa Tenggara	2.4
Kota Mojokerto	East Jawa	2.4
Kota Bekasi	West Jawa	2.4
Kota Kupang	East Nusa Tenggara	2.4

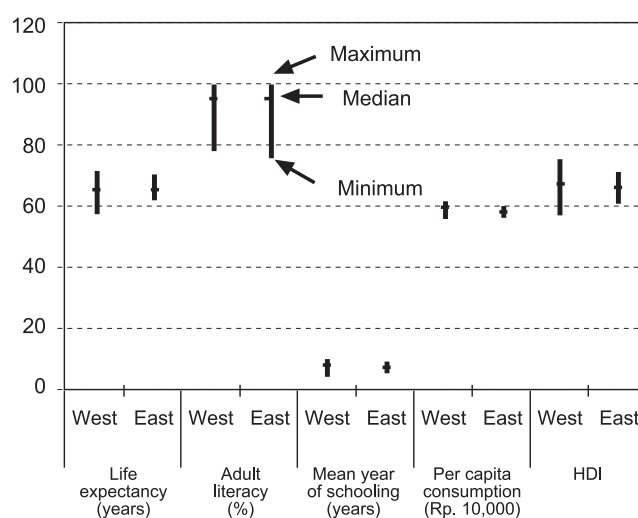
In 2002, none of the 341 districts fell in the category of high human development – 167 were in the upper-medium category, 172 were in the lower-medium and 2 were in the low category. However, there have been a number of boundary changes that will have affected the HDIs. Tapanuli Selatan, for example, lost what is now Mandailing Natal and between 1999 and 2002 its HDI increased from 65.2 to 68.4. Padang Pariaman lost what is now Kepulauan Mentawai and its HDI increased from 64.4 to 65.7. Although most districts increased their HDI some districts that had lost part of their areas also suffered declines. Sarolangun, for example, which lost what is now the district of Merangin saw its HDI fall from 65.0 to 64.9.

Comparing human development across Indonesia also shows an imbalance between the western and eastern parts of the country (Figure 4). Most districts in the east belong to the lower-middle or low HDI category while those in the west are predominantly in the upper-middle category. These imbalances in human development are primarily the result of imbalances in educational achievement principally in mean years of schooling along with achievements in living standards, as reflected in per capita consumption (Figure 5).

Imbalances in overall HDI between the provinces, however, are relatively low and continued to fall during the period 1999-2002. This is indicated by the the standard deviation among the provinces which is less than 4%.

Even so, the provinces do, on the other hand still show considerable differences in living standards.

However, there are often relative large disparities in human development between districts within provinces. Two of the 30 provinces have quite wide disparities – Papua and East Java (Figure 6). In East Java, for example, the lowest HDI level is in the district of Sampang at 49.7 and the highest is in Kota Mojokerto at 72.8. In Sampang the HDI level does not appear to have changed significantly in the past three years, with the HDI remaining at around 50.

Figure 5 – Disparities in component indicators between Eastern and Western provinces, 1999-2002

Comparing the per capita regional gross domestic product with the HDI does not indicate any consistent link between economic development and human development. On the one hand, there are some prosperous urban areas where the HDI is also high; on the other hand there are other cities that are also quite prosperous, such as a number in Nangro Aceh Darussalam, Riau, and Papua, but which have low HDIs.

In principle, government expenditure on social priorities through public services should be reflected in an increase in the HDI. But this does not seem to be happening. Instead the HDI seems to reflect more the result of household expenditure on education and health. It appears that local resources, as reflected in the regional domestic products, are still not being targeted towards increasing the level of social services.

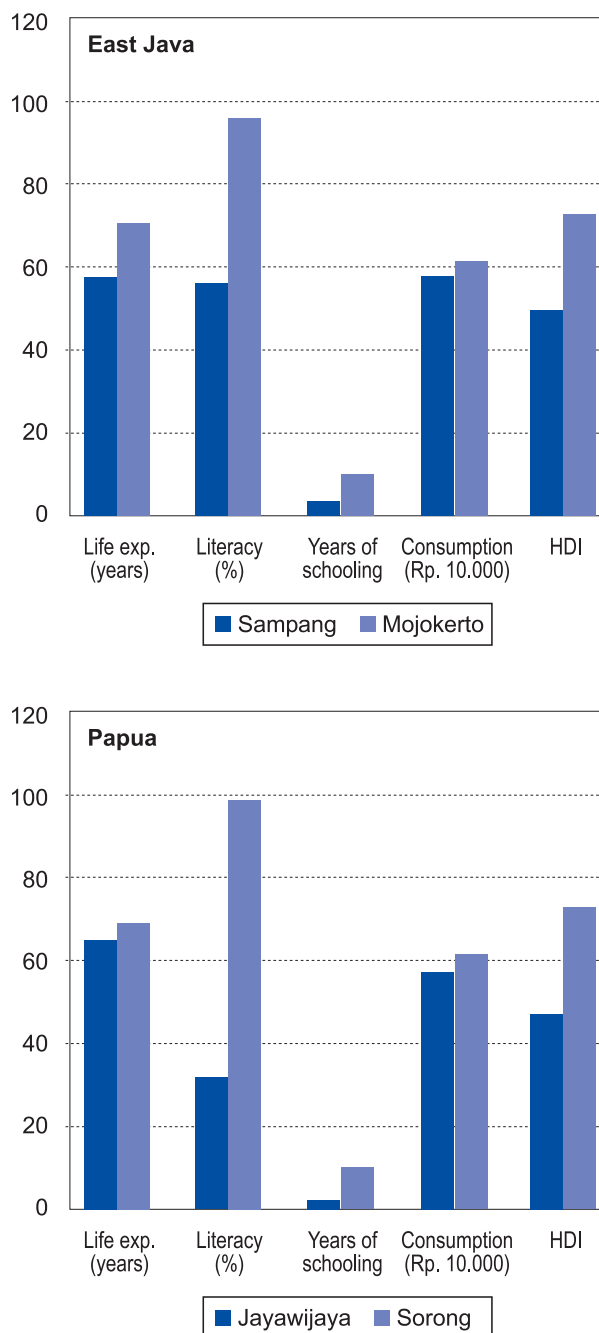
Of 293 districts for which comparisons can be made between 1999 and 2002, 17 experienced declines, and of these 12 had falls of greater than 1%. The leading 10 district rankings for HDI over the period 1999-2002 are still dominated by those which are in cities. At the same time the bottom 10 rankings during this period are still in East Nusa Tenggara and East Java (Table 2).

Gender disparities

Disparities in human development between men and women can be seen in the gender development index (GDI). The GDI, like the HDI, measures achievements in basic capabilities – life expectancy, levels of education, and the distribution of earned income between men and women. If the GDI is the same as the HDI that implies that there is no overall gender disparity. But if it is lower, then there are gender disparities. From the measured GDI data it can be seen that the GDI is in fact lower than the HDI and that there are gender disparities in all districts. The data also indicate that in the period 1999-2002 the gap widened – whereas during the period 1996-99 the gap had narrowed (Figure 7). This indicates a lowering of the reduction in gender disparities. Of 30 provinces, Bangka Belitung has the worst performance in gender disparity with an increase of 17.6%, followed by East Kalimantan with an increase of 16.6%. Nangroe Aceh Darussalam, which is affected by conflict, showed a much smaller increase over the period 1999-2002 of 2.9%.

Of Indonesia's 30 provinces, only Bangka Belitung has a GDI below 50, while all the other provinces have a GDI above 50. During the period 1999-2002, nine provinces experienced a fall in the HDI, with the greatest reduction occurring in Papua. The provinces that experienced the most rapid progress were North Sulawesi and Central Sulawesi.

Figure 6 – Disparities within provinces, East Java and Papua



Of 341 districts, 114 (34%) had GDIs of less than 50, 189 had GDIs between 50 and 60 while on the other hand 37 districts had GDIs greater than 50. The top ten ranking for the GDI during the period 1999-2002 is still dominated by the city districts (kota), while those in the bottom 10 are rural districts (kabupaten) in areas of East Java and East Nusa Tenggara.

The gender empowerment measure (GEM) measures gender balances in the areas of economic achievement, political participation and decision making. This index reflects the opportunities for women rather than their capacities. In 2002, of 30 provinces, nine experienced

Table 2 – Districts with the highest and lowest HDI rankings, 1999-2002

<i>Highest 1999 Kota</i>	<i>HDI</i>	<i>2002 Kota</i>	<i>HDI</i>
South Jakarta	75.1	East Jakarta	76.0
Yogyakarta	73.4	South Jakarta	75.7
Ambon	73.0	Yogyakarta	75.3
East Jakarta	72.8	North Jakarta	75.1
Manado	72.5	West Jakarta	75.0
Palangka Raya	72.3	Denpasar	74.9
West Jakarta	72.2	Central Jakarta	74.8
Denpasar	72.1	Manado	74.2
Bengkulu	71.8	Palangka Raya	74.2
Pekan Baru	71.7	Pematang Siantar	74.1

<i>Lowest 1999 Kabupaten</i>	<i>HDI</i>	<i>2002 Kabupaten</i>	<i>HDI</i>
Belu	51.8	Sumenep	56.5
Sikka	51.5	Situbondo	56.2
Central Lombok	50.7	East Lombok	56.1
Nias	50.4	West Lombok	55.0
West Lombok	49.9	Bondowoso	54.1
South Central Timor	49.2	Nabire	54.1
Jayawijaya	48.7	Central Lombok	53.9
Sampang	47.3	West Sumba	53.4
West Sumba	45.4	Sampang	49.7
Paniai	43.6	Jayawijaya	47.0

falls in their GEM. These were Bengkulu, East Java, Central Java, DKI Yogyakarta, Bali, East Nusa Tenggara, East Kalimantan, West Kalimantan and Maluku. These declines were principally due to changes in the proportion of women in the DPRD. The decline in the proportion of women representatives was evident in 13 provinces, including Bali, East Kalimantan, West Java, Bengkulu and Maluku. The provinces with the highest rankings were Central Sulawesi, together with South Kalimantan and South Sumatera with GEM values of 59.1, 57.5 and 56.9 respectively. The lowest ranking was that for North Maluku with a GEM value of 31.2.

The GEM index can take values between zero and 100. The more that value approaches 100, the more completely women are empowered. Of the 30 provinces, 16 fall in the category of low GEM with values lower than 50, while the other 14 are in the medium category with values lower than 60.

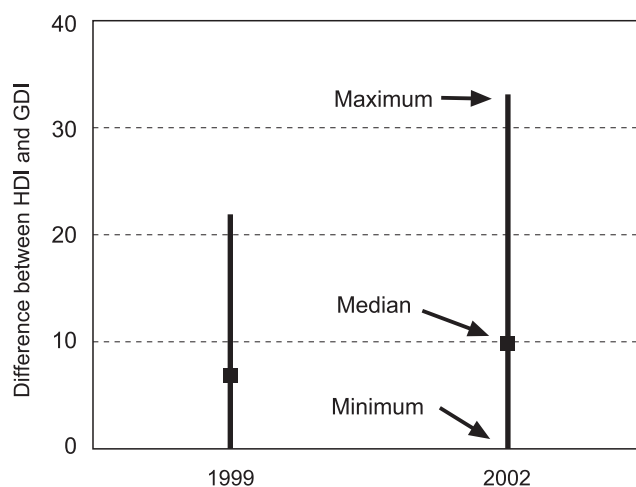
Figure 7 – Maximum and minimum differences between GDI and HDI among districts

Table 3 – Districts with the highest and lowest GDI rankings, 1999-2002

<i>Highest 1999</i>		<i>2002</i>	
<i>District</i>	<i>GDI</i>	<i>District</i>	<i>GDI</i>
Temanggung	65.5	Karo	68.5
Kota Palangka Raya	65.7	Kota Batam	68.6
North Tapanuli	65.9	Kota Yogyakarta	68.8
Kota Surakarta	66.5	Kota Kediri	69.1
Kota Padang Panjang	67.3	Toba Samosir	69.3
Sleman	67.4	Kota Banda Aceh	69.7
Karo	69.0	Kota Denpasar	70.1
Kota Yogyakarta	69.4	Kota Pematang Siantar	70.4
Kota Salatiga	69.8	Kota Ambon	71.3
Kota Ambon	69.8	Kota Salatiga	72.5
<i>Lowest 1999</i>		<i>2002</i>	
<i>District</i>	<i>GDI</i>	<i>District</i>	<i>GDI</i>
Bondowoso	37.6	Probolinggo	32.2
Probolinggo	37.7	Indragiri Hilir	34.5
East Lombok	38.8	Wajo	35.1
Jember	39.1	Rokan Hilir	35.4
West Lombok	39.1	East Lombok	36.8
South Central Timor	39.6	Banggai Kepulauan	37.6
Indramayu	40.2	Toli-Toli	38.0
Wajo	41.8	South Central Timor	38.1
Central Lombok	42.4	Nabire	38.5
West Sumba	42.4	Sampang	38.8

Of 336 districts (excluding the 5 districts in Jakarta) for the year 2002 around 77.4% were in the low GEM category and 6% were in the medium category. The district with the highest value was Klaten (Central Java) with a value of 64.7%. Of the districts that were classified in the top ten in 1999 only three were in the top ten in 2002 – Klaten, Kota Semarang and Kota Ambon. The district with the lowest GEM was Fak Fak with a value of 22.5. This is one of the districts which was in the bottom ten in both 1999 and 2002.

Human poverty and deprivation

Human poverty can be measured with basic indicators of deprivation – short life expectancy, and the lack of access to basic education, as well the lack of access to both public and private resources. The proxies for these indicators are the percentage of people not expected to live beyond 40 years of age, the percentage of adults who are illiterate, the percentage of people who lack access to

health services and sources of clean water, and the percentage of children of five years and under who are malnourished (underweight). These indicators are combined to give the human poverty index (HPI).

The Human Poverty Index has a perspective different from measures that use an income approach, which are referred to as the ‘poverty rate’. Given that the perspectives are different it is understandable that these two measures do not always correspond. The income approach measures the proportion of people whose incomes are below the poverty line, and thus uses relative deprivation in the living standard that has yet to be achieved. The HPI, on the other hand, measure deprivation that can block people’s opportunities to achieve appropriate standards of living. Nevertheless, these two measures (the HPI and the poverty rate) can, if used together, give a useful picture of the poverty situation.

Data at the provincial level shows that of 30 provinces, 20 achieved reductions in their HPIs, while six others, North Sumatera, South Sumatera, East Kalimantan, South

Figure 8 – GDI by province, 1999-2002

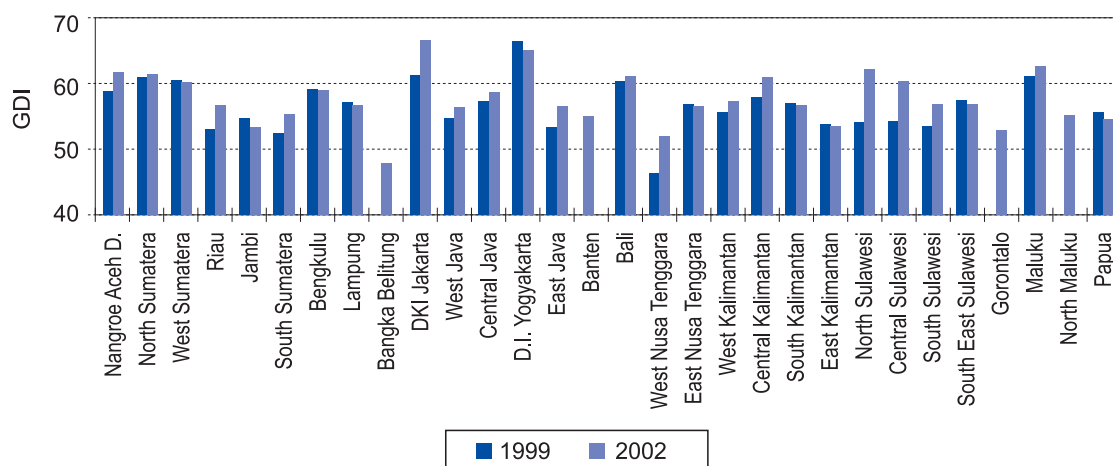
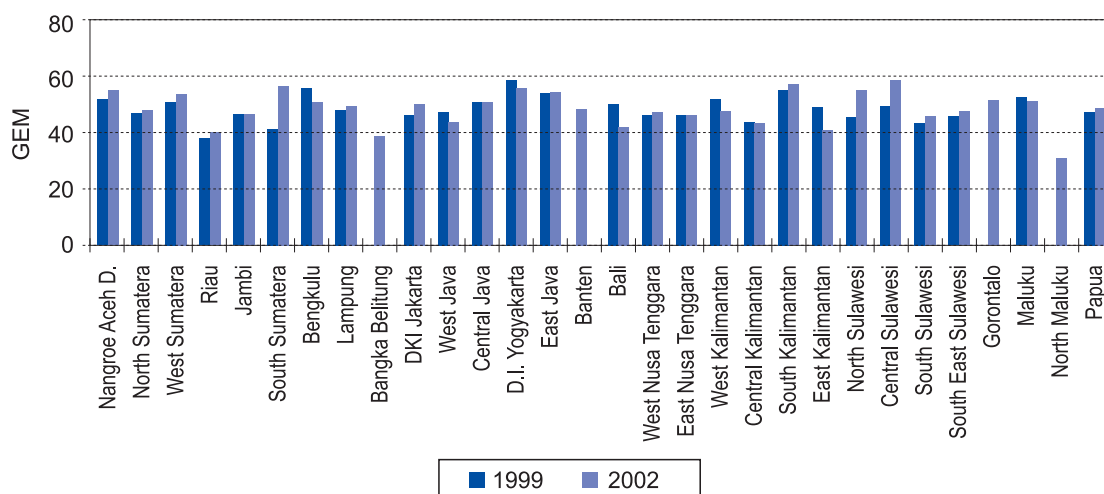


Figure 9 – GEM by province, 1999-2002



Kalimantan, Central Sulawesi and South East Sulawesi saw their rates increase (Figure 11). The setbacks in these provinces are due to a reduction in access to clean water and a decline in nutritional status. On the other hand there were increases in access to health services and to basic education.

Among the provinces, the HPI in 2002 ranges between 13.2 and 38.0 (Figure 12). The province with the highest ranking is DKI Jakarta with a HPI of 13.2 while the province with the lowest ranking is West Kalimantan with a HDI of 38.0. The HPI rates for provinces overall are lower than in 1999 when they ranged from 15.5 to 38.7 though the highest and lowest rankings did not change.

At the district level, on the other hand, there have been a number of changes between 1999 and 2002. In 1999, the HPIs ranged from 8.3% in North Jakarta to 47.7% in Jayawijaya, while in 2002 they ranged from 8.0% in Balikpapan to 51.2% in Jayawijaya.

Figure 10 – GEM by components, 1999-2002

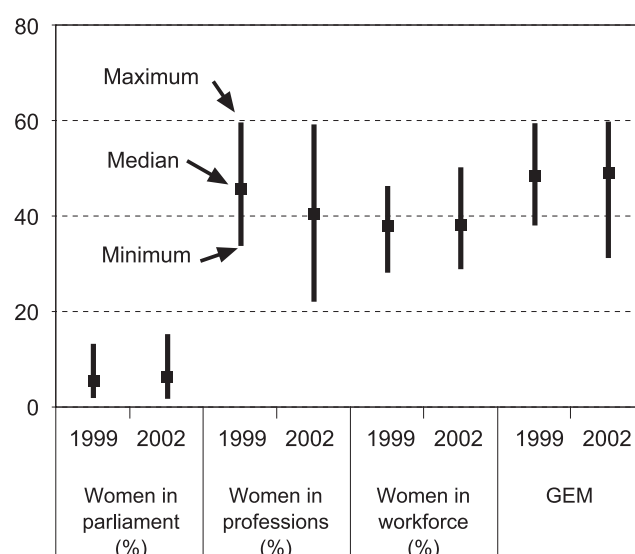


Table 4 – Districts with the highest and lowest GEM rankings, 1999-2002

<i>Highest 1999</i>		<i>2002</i>	
<i>District</i>	<i>GEM</i>	<i>District</i>	<i>GEM</i>
Kota Semarang	61.1	Klaten	64.7
Hulu Sungai Tengah	59.7	Purbalingga	63.5
Kota Magelang	59.4	South Tapanuli	61.6
Sumedang	58.6	Boalemo	61.3
Sawah Lunto/Sijunjung	58.1	Karanganyar	61.2
Klaten	58.0	Kota Bukit Tinggi	60.1
Kota Payakumbuh	57.9	Kota Semarang	59.7
Kulon Progo	57.8	Bireuen	59.6
Kudus	57.7	Kota Ambon	59.4
Kota Ambon	57.4	Nias	59.3
<i>Lowest 1999</i>		<i>2002</i>	
<i>District</i>	<i>GEM</i>	<i>District</i>	<i>GEM</i>
Kota Pekanbaru	33.0	Fak Fak	22.5
Sidenreng Rappang	33.0	Indragiri Hilir	22.5
Tangerang	32.5	Malinau	22.2
Probolinggo	32.2	Sorong	21.5
Tanjung Balai	31.1	East Kutai	20.7
Labuhan Batu	30.7	South Central Timor	19.3
Bekasi	28.9	Yapen Waropen	18.4
Fak Fak	28.2	Kepulauan Mentawai	16.8
Kotawaringin Barat	27.5	Buru	14.9
Tanjung Jabung	27.5	Rokan Hilir	10.3

Figure 11 – HPI by province, 1999-2002

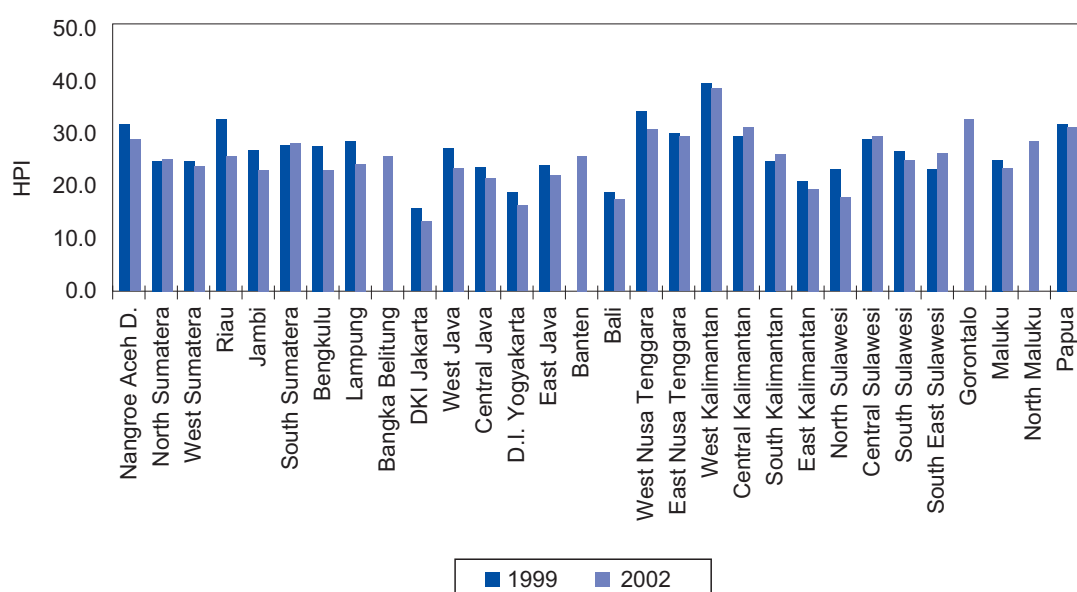
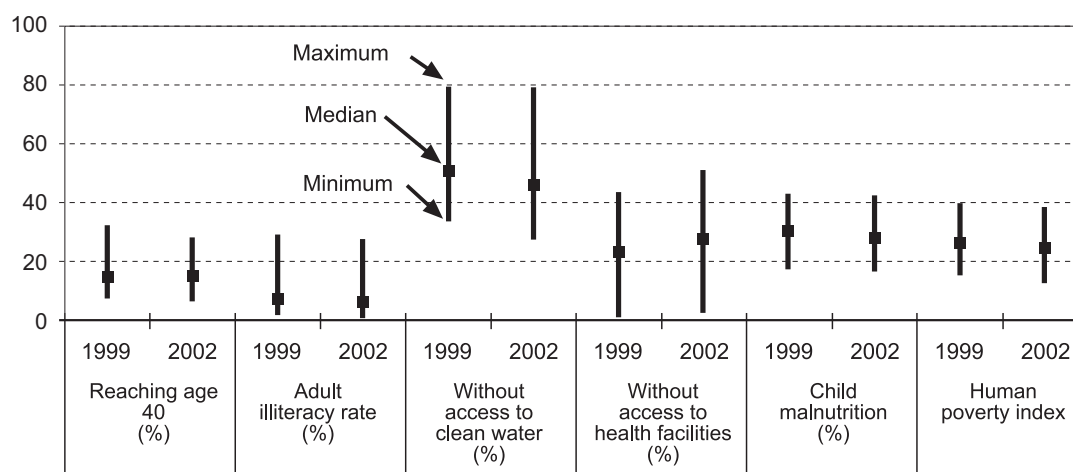


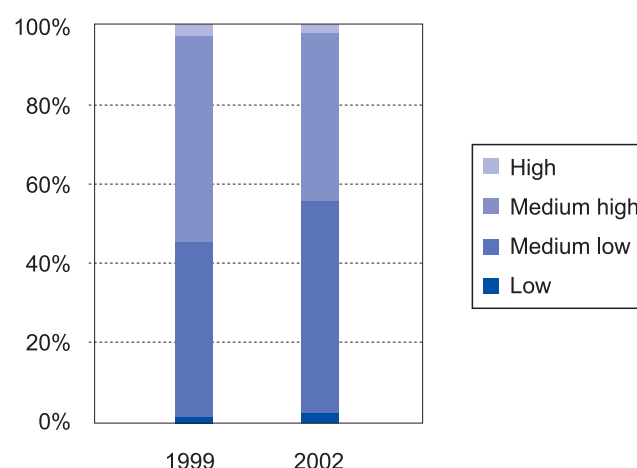
Figure 12 – HPI by components, 1999-2002



Data for 1999 show that of 294 districts four were in the low HPI category, with a HPI of less than 10% (North Jakarta, Central Jakarta, Padang Panjang and Central Halmahera), 129 were in the medium-low category, with 10% to 25%, 151 were in the medium-high category, with 25% to 40%, and 10 were in the high category with more than 40%. Data for 2002 following the sub-division of districts, show that of 341 districts, 8 were in the high category, 181 were in the medium-low category, 143 were in the medium-high category and 9 were in the high category (Figure 13).

Of all the districts, one-third experienced increases in HPI averaging 15.8% while the remainder experiences falls averaging 13.4%. The steepest increase, of more than 100%, occurred in North Maluku, Central Halmahera and Selayar. The factors contributing to an increase in the HPI were an increase in the proportion of people not expected to reach age 40 and a deterioration in access to health facilities. On the other hand, the greatest falls in HPI of more than 40% occurred in Kota Batam, Kota Manado, Kota Bogor and Soppeng. This was due to improvements in almost all the poverty indicators.

Figure 13 – Districts according to HPI category, 1999-2002



Box 1

Interpretation of the human development indices

When interpreting these indices, several things need to be borne in mind.

1. Changes in regional boundaries

Between 1999 and 2002 there were changes in the regional boundaries as a result of subdividing some regions. For example, the district of Tanjung Jabung was subdivided in 2002 into two districts: East Tanjung Jabung and West Tanjung Jabung. As a result, in 1999 there were 294 districts while in 2002 as a consequence of these changes there were 341.

2. Conflict zones

In the case of regions affected by conflicts such as Nangroe Aceh Darussalem, Maluku, North Maluku and Papua the indicators were calculated from Susenas data for 2003 because the 2002 Susenas only covered the cities.

3. Comprehensiveness

These indices measure people's prosperity in a broader way, going beyond simply income or production in a given district. Nevertheless they do not offer a complete picture of human development. For this purpose they need to be supplemented with various other indicators.

Table 5 – Districts with the highest and lowest HPI rankings, 1999-2002

<i>Highest 1999 District</i>	<i>HPI</i>	<i>2002 District</i>	<i>HPI</i>
Kota North Jakarta	8.4	Kota Balikpapan	8.0
Kota Central Jakarta	9.0	Kota North Jakarta	8.8
Kota Padang Panjang	9.6	Kota Salatiga	9.2
Central Halmahera	9.8	Kota Surabaya	9.3
Kota Salatiga	10.1	Kota Ujung Pandang	9.5
Kota Balikpapan	10.3	Kota Semarang	9.5
Kota Magelang	10.4	Kota Batam	9.6
Kota Bukit Tinggi	10.8	Kota Central Jakarta	9.7
Kota Ujung Pandang	11.4	Kota Pematang Siantar	10.0
Kota Surabaya	11.6	Kota Solok	10.7
<i>Lowest 1999 District</i>	<i>HPI</i>	<i>2002 District</i>	<i>HPI</i>
Sintang	41.0	Manokwari	39.0
Pontianak	41.5	South Aceh	40.2
South Aceh	41.7	Sanggau	40.7
Paniai	42.6	West Aceh	41.0
West Aceh	42.8	Aceh Singkil	41.3
Barito Kuala	43.5	Sintang	43.4
Kapuas Hulu	43.7	Way Kanan	44.0
Indragiri Hilir	43.8	Landak	44.9
Sanggau	46.5	Kapuas Hulu	47.5
Jayawijaya	47.7	Jayawijaya	51.2

Technical workshop on human development indicators

A. Preface

A one-day technical workshop on human development indicators was held at BPS on Wednesday September 24, 2003. The workshop was organized jointly by BPS, Bappenas and the UNDP which sponsored the workshop. Dr. Satish Mishra represented the UNDP, Indonesia. The Head of BPS, Dr. Soedarti Surbakti opened the workshop. As many as 115 people out of 133 invitees from different government departments, Bappenas, BPS (from the central & provincial offices in the newly-created provinces and Java), universities, provincial agencies for regional development, non-government organizations and donor agencies participated at the workshop.

The aim of the workshop was to gather input from the participants on the reliability and validity of several composite and single indicators as presented in the discussion paper, *Human Development Indicators*.

The workshop was divided into 4 groups each having its chairperson and a minute taker. The subject matter and the summary of discussion by each group are:

Group I

Subject matter : HDI and GRDP

Chairperson : Dr. Tommy Firman (Planologi, ITB)

Minute taker : Sunarno, S.Si

Members : annex 1

Summary of discussion

The concept of HDI

- Are the HDI components, namely education, health and consumption, enough to depict human development?
- Community participation in development should be accommodated in HDI computation.
- Can we put human freedom index (HFI) into HDI?
- So far economic growth does not benefit all the community, especially those without economic access, so there is a possibility of disconnection between HDI and future economic growth.

Variable

- Can GDP data be refined, such as with Green GDP for a better accounting of sustainable economic activities?
- Have the indicators from the survey by BPS been checked with the relevant government departments, such as BKKBN, ministry of health and ministry of national education.

Data

- There are inconsistencies between HDI and the real conditions in some districts, such as Bangka Belitung, West Sumatra, and Sampang.
- HDI still cannot explain the general picture of human development since it involves only three components; so other variables are needed. Can the data on recreation expenses be accommodated in HDI?
- How to compare HDI figures before and after the creation of new provinces or districts?

Method

- Has the HDI method followed the international standard so that it can be compared internationally?
- Is there a need for HDI computation using the Indonesian norms?
- So far the computation of life expectancy used the indirect method. It should be done by using vital statistics. But the data are not sufficiently available. Therefore, local governments should be engaged in gathering comprehensive data on vital statistics.

Bias

- The computation of HDI tends to have a bias toward urban areas and regions.

Accuracy

- Since the indicators at kabupaten level were not in line with real conditions, the quality of data has to be improved. So we propose that local governments should increase the samples of the national socio-economic survey.

- To compute the purchasing power parity, we should increase the current commodity items (27 to 43) and include local specific commodities.
- The ranking has to be rechecked since there is an indication that it does not reflect the current situation.
- Technical note on the limitation of the method and data should be provided.

Confirmation

- The results of HDI computation should be confirmed with BPS at province level and BPS at kabupaten/kota level before publication.

Group II

Subject matter : GDI and GEM

Chairperson : Ir Retno Setyowati (PPK-UNS)

Minute taker : Diana Aryanti

Members : annex 2

Summary of discussion

General

- It is recommended that the National Human Development Report sets out not only the formulae and processes of the GDI and GEM calculations (as well as other indicators), but also how to understand the figures along with examples. The report should also include discussions of good, average and poor performers.
- The word 'gender' is misspelled as 'jender'. This should be corrected.
- One of the GEM indicators in the paper is the "the percentage of women having professional, technical, leadership and management careers" that represents women's participation in the decision making process in economy. It is recommended that the term economic field is expanded to have a wider meaning.
- Another GEM indicator stated in the paper is "inhabitant proportion". It is mentioned that this indicator represents women's role as opposed to men's among all inhabitants. To be more exact, the word "role" in this regard is to be replaced with "proportion".
- In conflict regions such as Nangroe Aceh Darussalam the GDI rank improved during 1999-2000, and in Maluku, the rank improved, too, between 1996 and 2002. Why so? Has there been any mistake in the sampling?
- Are the components used in GDI calculation correct, and how to read and interpret GDI, GEM?
- One of the GDI components is income contribution. The explanation of this component provided in the paper (page 3) is not clear; it needs to be revised.
- The words "perempuan" and "wanita" in the Indonesian language have different meanings; thus in GDI and GEM, the word "perempuan" should be used consistently.
- There is a worry that the sample is too small to generate HDI/GDI per kabupaten/kota, especially for the

calculation of life expectancy.

- Why are GDI components different from those of GEM? How is that a region has a low GDI but high GEM?

Health

- The paper mentions that the data source of life expectancy at birth = e0 is the 2002 National Socio-economic Survey (Susenas 2002-core). The correct data source is:
 - SP 2000 predicted for year 2002 by considering the trend based on population census and combination of Supas 1995 and Susenas 1996.
- Higher female life expectancy than men's will affect GDI.
- Maternal mortality rate is considered more sensitive than life expectancy according to the Ministry of Health.

Education

- Literacy rate is considered no longer sensitive. Why does the limit for adult rate use 15-and-above, not 15-40 years of age used in MDG (Millennium Development Goals)?

Group III

Subject matter : Health, Education & Financing Human Development

Chairperson : Dr. Fasli Jalal (Director General - Non formal education, Ministry of National Education)

Minute taker : Wachyu Winarsih, M.Si

Members : annex 3

Summary of discussion

Health

- Indicators for MMR (Maternal Mortality Rate) and CPR (Contraceptive Prevalence Rate) need to be presented due to the fact that almost every country presents these indicators, although it is known that obtaining these indicators at kabupaten/kota level as well as at provincial level is still difficult. The important thing is to include the indicators conceptually in the subject even though the figures presented may be limited to national figures.
- Morbidity data presented in health indicators table is calculated by a concept different from the international concept. In this regard, morbidity has to do with a person who has some health problem that inhibits his/her work, school and other daily activities. Internationally, however, morbidity rate is usually related to diagnosis of an illness. Therefore, the term morbidity needs to be evaluated in its usage.
- The percentage table of baby child birth aided by a medical staff is being questioned as regards the term, concept and measuring method. The term used is 'child', but it seems that those who are measured are children under five.

- The percentage of households without proper sanitation is measured by the percentage of households based on the status of toilet owned. As a measure for health, it would be more appropriate if the measurement is related to the place for final disposal of solid waste.
- In some locations, a house with brick floor cannot be taken as measure for environment health rate. Therefore, another measurement should be added that represents the health/welfare, namely the size of the floor per capita (house density).

Education

- Indicators for GPR (Gross Participation Rate) and NPR (Net Participation Rate) need to be included as a sole indicator for education.
- In the description of School Participation Rate (SPR), SPR 7-15 years of age is defined, but the tables present SPR 7-12 years of age and SPR 13-15 years of age. One more table should therefore be presented, namely SPR 7-15 years of age.
- Data of special groups' (street kids, remote community) access to education facilities need to be identified.
- Data on education of pre-school children (PADU) and other non-formal education (courses) often taken by the community needs to be identified, since education is long lasting by its nature (lifetime education).
- HPI and GDI calculation highlights adult literacy rate (15-24 years of age) that is relatively high in general. But beyond those ages, literacy rate might be still low, thus needs to be addressed.

Financial indicators

- Kabupaten/kota data source: APBD kab/kota + deconcentration fund/assistance fund.
- Provincial data = aggregate of APBD kab/kota + APBD province.
- The following tables should be presented:
 - The percentage of health expenditures in total expenditures
 - The percentage of education expenditures in total expenditures
 - The percentage of health expenditures financed by the community
 - The percentage of education expenditures financed by the community
- Social services expenditures also include expenditures on water resources and transportation.

Group IV

Subject matter : Work opportunity, poverty and HPI

Chairperson : Prof. Dr. HM Tahor Kasnawi, SU (UNHAS)

Minute taker : Ahmad Avenzora, SE

Members : annex 4

Summary of discussion

Manpower

- The manpower concept still uses the new definition based on the ILO concept (used since 2001). However, it is also acceptable to use the old concept so there can be a comparison with year 1999. In addition, there needs to be a consideration for the efforts to measure the number of job seekers included in TPAK (Labor Force Participation rate). Avoid anything misleading where TPAK seems to be high whereas unemployment is high too.
- For being underemployment, it is recommended to use the concept of involuntary underemployment (working < 35 hours and still seeking an extra job).
- There is a need to develop additional indicators to record the variation of data cross-region manpower. For example, the labour force mobility in Bali.
- It is recommended to change the term "workers in informal sector" (as shown in table 14) into "informal workers". This is because according to the definition described in technical notes, the work status, instead of the sector is informal.

Consumption and poverty

- Poverty data should be able to show the trend during the period of 1999-2002. Thus, if possible, the table format should also put the column of poverty data in year 1999 in two versions, namely the new and old methods. This is to avoid confusion when comparing the poverty in NHDR 2001 with NHDR 2003.
- Promoting the implementation of Regional Socioeconomic Survey (Suseda) at kabupaten/kota level to add Susenas samples so that there is a higher poverty rate in kabupaten/kota. In addition, Suseda can also be used to develop local planning.
- The presentation of BPS data should be adjusted to APBD schedule.

Human poverty index (HPI)

- There should be a review of the definition of one of HPI components, namely Illiteracy Rate, which is in relation to whether it is illiteracy of roman letters only or of other types of letter. Recommendation: use a fixed standard.

B. Plenary session

- For the calculation of life expectancy rate at kabupaten level, it is advisable to use data from kabupaten/kota survey, but the samples need to be expanded.
- The calculation of index rate is greatly influenced by the maximum and minimum score.
 - In certain conditions, UNDP standard is to be used.
 - In other conditions, Indonesian standard is to be used.
- For education, why using only maximum score of 15, and what does the data imply?
- More appropriate sanitation concept is if the measurement is related to the place for final disposal of solid waste.
- According to the international standard, the term morbidity refers not only to a complaint of pain and inhibition of the activity, but also the need to diagnosis the illness.
- Long and healthy life should be measured not only by the life expectancy, but also by the state of prime health. HDI definition should be better described, because the change in the in HDI is very small. Human development should have a more sensitive variable to show considerable changes.
- There needs to be consideration of the presentation of tables compared each year, and if necessary the new kabupaten is returned to its original kabupaten.
- Actually, HDI context is very wide, but the data to be accommodated in the HDI are not available.
- It is recommended that the presentation of BPS data are adjusted to the schedule of Regional Budget (APBD).

C. Overall resume

- The editing needs to be reviewed in the aspects of concept, calculation method, and titles on the table.
- Data accuracy, time comparison and consistency among tables, and relevance of indicators by territory need to be considered.
- Time reference and data source are to be presented completely.
- Technical notes are to be completely described, concerning the pluses and minuses of the methodology and data.
- Interpretation of the indices needs to be provided.
- HDI results are to be socialized first.
- In addition to the data in education and health fields, other health indicators such as TBC, HIV, AIDS, etc need to be included. If the data are available, additional information on special group such as street kids and preschooler should be included.
- For the indicators to reflect the condition in the field, more Susenas samples are necessary, or a special survey through Suseda.

D. Data sources

The data used in the calculation of human development indicators are mainly from the National Socioeconomic Survey (Susenas). Additionally, other sources are used such as the population census, financial statistics of the provincial government year 1999-2002 (K-1 list) and kabupaten/kota (K-2 list). The following table provides information on some indicators used for human development, along with the data sources.

Table 1 - Sources of data

No.	Indicator	Data source	Remarks
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
A	Education		
1	Literacy Rate (AMH)	Susenas,2002	processed
2	Schooling average (MYS)	Susenas,2002	processed
3	School Participation Rate (APS)	Susenas,2002	processed
4	Drop-out Rate (DO)	Susenas,2002	processed
B	Health		
5	Life Expectancy at Birth (e_0)	SP'71, SP'80, SP'90, Supas'95, SP'2000	processed
6	Infant Mortality Rate (IMR)	SP'71, SP'80, SP'90, Supas'95, SP'2000	processed
7	People estimated to live under 40 years of age	SP'71, SP'80, SP'90, Supas'95, SP'2000	processed
8	Percentage of population with a health complaint	Susenas,2002	processed
9	Percentage of diseased people (morbidity)	Susenas,2002	processed
10	Average sick period	Susenas,2002	processed

11	Percentage of people with self-treatment	Susenas,2002	processed
12	Percentage of births aided by medical staff	Susenas,2002	processed
13	Percentage of malnourished children under five	Susenas,2002	processed
14	Percentage of households with access to clean water sources	Susenas,2002	processed
15	Percentage of households with a brick-floored house	Susenas,2002	processed
16	Percentage of people without access to the health facilities	Susenas,2002	processed
17	Percentage of households without access to sanitation	Susenas,2002	processed
C	Manpower		
18	Population proportion	Susenas,2002	processed
19	Work Force Participation Rate	Susenas,2002	processed
20	Workers with < 14 working hours per week	Susenas,2002	processed
21	Workers with < 35 working hours per week	Susenas,2002	processed
22	Worker's average wage in non-agricultural sectors	Susenas,2002	processed
23	Women having professional, technical, leadership and management careers	Susenas,2002	processed
24	Women in work force	Susenas,2002	processed
25	Women in the parliament	DPR, DPRD I/II	Compilation
26	Workers in informal sectors	Susenas,2002	Processed
27	Contribution to income	Susenas,2002	Obtained from calculation
D	Poverty		
28	Total expense per capita (Rp)	Susenas,2002	Processed
29	Percentage of expense per capita for food	Susenas,2002	Processed
30	Adjusted real expense per capita (Rp)	Susenas,2002	Obtained from calculation
31	Poverty line (Rp/capita/month)	Susenas,2002	Obtained from calculation
32	The number of poor people	Susenas,2002	Obtained from calculation
33	Poverty rate (%)	Susenas,2002	Obtained from calculation
E	Economy		
34	Real GRDP per capita with oil and gas	Gross Regional Product per kabupaten/kota	Compilation
35	Real GRDP per capita without oil and gas	Gross Regional Product per kabupaten/kota	Compilation
F	Financing Human development		
36	expenditures on public % of state expenditures	Financial statistic of kabupaten/kota, provincial government	Calculation
37	expenditures on social service % of public expenditures	Financial statistic of kabupaten/kota, provincial government	Calculation
38	expenditures on social service priority % to social expenditures	Financial statistic of kabupaten/kota, provincial government	Calculation

39	expenditures on social service priority % of state expenditures	Financial statistic of kabupaten/city, provincial government	Calculation
40	% of household expenditures on education	Susenas	Processed
41	% of household expenditures on health	Susenas	Processed
40	% of household expenditures on education & health	Susenas	Processed

Annex 1

N a m e s	Institutions
GROUP I	
Chairperson : DR. Tommy Firman	ITB Bandung
Members :	
1. Drs. Wynandin Imawan, MSc	Central BPS
2. DR. Slamet Sutomo	Central BPS
3. S. Happy Hardjo, Mec	Central BPS
4. Drs. Razali Ritonga, MA	Central BPS
5. Bambang Heru S., SE.,MA	Central BPS
6. S u n a r n o	Central BPS
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12. Drs.Ahmad. Kuryatin	BPS Jawa Tengah
13. Tri Rahayu, MM	Menko Kesra
14. Ay. San Harjono	UNSFIR
15. Tri Rahayu	Menko Bid. Kesra
16. Drs. K. Suprpto WM, MSc	Depdagri
17. Drs. Marsum M.Si	PSK - UNCEN
18. Setyo Budiantoro	Bina Swadaya
19. M. Pohan	Bappeda Kalsel
20. Syafrian	Bappeda Kaltim
21. Moh Bahtiar, B.Sc	BPS Banten
22. Drs H. Ahmad Tohri	Bappeda NTB
23. Irsyamsyah	Bappeda Bengkulu
24. Wahyu Handoyo	UNSFIR
25. M. Djaseran	Bappeda Kalsel
26. Titiek Setyowati	Litbang Kes
27. Syafii	Atda DDN
28. Sulistyio	Central BPS
29. Siti Sandang	Bappeda Jabar
30. I Gde. Bagus Kresna	Bappeda Bali
31. Yulia Masrida	Bappeda Sumbar
32. Lilis Heri Mis Cicih	LD-UI

Annex 2

N a m e s	Institutions
<p>GROUP II</p> <p>Chairperson: Ir. Retno Setyowati</p> <p>Members :</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Drs. Suharno, M.Sc 2. Ir. Sri Indrayanti 3. DR. Suryamin, M.Sc 4. Peni Candraningtyas, SE 5. Sri Yulia Indriati 6. Bana Bodri, B.St 7. Sri Budianti, MA 8. Budiasih, SE 9. Tati Irwati, MA 10. Rini Sawitridina, MA 11. Dra. Rohana Susiawati 12. Diana Aryanti, SP 13. Siti Mardiah, MA 14. Dr. Agus Suwandono 15. Didiek Santosa 16. Wiwik Krishyanti 17. Maesuroh, M.A 18. Rini Apsari, S.Si 19. DR. Fariastuti 20. Agustina 21. Drs. Daud Syamsudin 22. Ir. Syuhada A,Umar, MT 24. Munawaroh 	<p>PPK - UNS</p> <p>Central BPS</p> <p>Central BPS</p> <p>Central BPS</p> <p>Central BPS</p> <p>Central BPS</p> <p>Central BPS</p> <p>Central BPS</p> <p>Central BPS</p> <p>Central BPS</p> <p>Central BPS</p> <p>BPS Prop. Gorontalo</p> <p>Badan Litbang Kes</p> <p>Men PP</p> <p>Men PP</p> <p>Menko Kesra</p> <p>Kabid Sos BPS DKI</p> <p>PSK-Univ.Tanjungpura</p> <p>PPK – LIPI</p> <p>Bappeda Maluku Utara</p> <p>Bappeda Sumsel</p> <p>BPS DKI</p>

Annex 3

N a m e s	Institutions
GROUP III Chairperson: DR. Fasli Jalal, Ph.D Members : <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Rusman Heriawan, MS 2. Drs. Johny Anwar 3. Ir. Aryago Mulya 4. Wahyu Winarsih, M.Si 5. DR. Haryadi 6. Gantjang Amanullah, MA 7. Ekasari, SE 8. Dra. Ismiranti 9. Ir. Tanda Sirait, MM 10. Rohsapto 11. Rinto S 12. Drs. Eko Suwanto 13. Titi Handayani 14. Drs. Sujarwanto 15. Juni Melani 16. Nikensari 17. Rie Fujisawa 18. Pandu Harimurti 19. Richard Macklaew 20. Wahyu Handoyo 21. Erman Syamsudin 22. Agus Ismail 23. Susanto Tri Nugroho 24. Rahmانيar B. 	Depdiknas Central BPS Central BPS Central BPS Central BPS STIS Central BPS Central BPS Kabid P2AS BPS DKI BPS DKI Jakarta Kimpraswil Depnaker Badan Litbang Depdagri LIPI FE. UNSUD JICA UNICEF WHO Depkes UNFPA UNSFIR Ditjen PLSP Depdiknas Bappeda Jawa Barat Bappeda Kalbar Litbang Kes.PusdatinDepkes

Annex 4

N a m e s	Institutions
GROUP IV Chairperson: Prof. DR. HM. Tahir Kasnawi, SU Members : <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. DR. Komet Mangiri 2. DR. Sihar L. 3. Ahmad Avenzora, SE 4. Yunita R 5. Uzair Suhaimi, MA 6. M. Nurdin 7. Sudartono B.st 8. Sigit Pranowo 9. Siti Nursiyah 10. Siswoyo Heri SE, M.Si 11. Irawan Bintang 12. Ibnu Budiono 13. T. Zulham, SE.,Msi 14. Widjajanti I. Suharyo 15. Ardius Prihantoro, S. Sos 16. Drs. I Gusti Bagus KD 	PSK – UNHAS Central BPS Central BPS Central BPS Central BPS Central BPS BPS Prop. Banten BPS Prop Jawa Barat BPS Prop DI. Yogyakarta Depdagri Univ Jember Bappeda Sulsel National Planning Board PPK – SDM UNSIAH. BANDA ACEH SMERU IPB Bappeda Bali

Changes in names due to the formation of new provinces and districts

Province

Provinces in 1999	Provinces in 2002
Sumatera Selatan (South Sumatera)	Sumatera Selatan (South Sumatera) Kepulauan Bangka Belitung (Bangka Belitung Islands)
Jawa Barat (West Java)	Jawa Barat (West Java) Banten
Sulawesi Utara (North Sulawesi)	Sulawesi Utara (North Sulawesi) Gorontalo
Maluku	Maluku Maluku Utara (North Maluku)
Irian Jaya	Papua *)

*) Only change in name

Kabupaten/Kota (Districts)

Kabupaten/Kota in 1999	Kabupaten/Kota in 2002
Nangroe Aceh Darussalam	Nangroe Aceh Darussalam
Kab. Aceh Barat (West Aceh)	Kab. Simeulue Kab. Aceh Barat (West Aceh)
Kab. Aceh Selatan (South Aceh)	Kab. Aceh Singkil Kab. Aceh Selatan (South Aceh)
Kab. Aceh Utara (North Aceh)	Kab. Bireuen Kab. Aceh Utara (North Aceh)
North Sumatera	North Sumatera
Kab. Tapanuli Selatan (South Tapanuli)	Kab. Mandailing Natal Kab. Tapanuli Selatan (South Tapanuli)
Kab. Tapanuli Utara (North Tapanuli)	Kab. Tapanuli Utara (North Tapanuli) Kab. Toba Samosir
West Sumatera	West Sumatera
Kab. Padang Pariaman	Kab. Kepulauan Mentawai (Mentawai Islands) Kab. Padang Pariaman
Riau	Riau
Kab. Indragiri Hulu	Kab. Kuantan Singingi Kab. Indragiri Hulu
Kab. Kepulauan Riau (Riau Islands)	Kab. Karimun Kab. Kepulauan Riau (Riau Islands) Kab. Natuna
Kab. Kampar	Kab. Pelalawan Kab. Kampar Kab. Rokan Hulu
Kab. Bengkalis	Kab. Siak Kab. Bengkalis Kab. Rokan Hilir Kota Dumai
Jambi	Jambi
Kab. Sarolangun Bangko	Kab. Merangin Kab. Sarolangun
Kab. Batang Hari	Kab. Batang Hari Kab. Muaro Jambi
Kab. Tanjung Jabung	Kab. Tanjung Jabung Timur (East Tanjung Jabung) Kab. Tanjung Jabung Barat (West Tanjung Jabung)
Kab. Bungo Tebo	Kab. Tebo Kab. Bungo

Lampung	Lampung
Kab. Lampung Selatan (South Lampung)	Kab. Tanggamus Kab. Lampung Selatan (South Lampung)
Kab. Lampung Tengah (Central Lampung)	Kab. Lampung Timur (East Lampung) Kab. Lampung Tengah (Central Lampung) Kota Metro
Kab. Lampung Utara (North Lampung)	Kab. Lampung Utara (North Lampung) Kab. Way Kanan Kab. Tulang Bawang
West Java	West Java
Kab. Bogor	Kab. Bogor Kota Depok
West Java	Banten
Kab. Serang	Kab. Serang Kota Cilegon
East Nusa Tenggara	East Nusa Tenggara
Kab. Flores Timur (East Flores)	Kab. Lembata Kab. Flores Timur (East Flores)
West Kalimantan	West Kalimantan
Kab. Sambas	Kab. Sambas Kab. Bengkayang
Kab. Pontianak	Kab. Landak Kab. Pontianak
North Sulawesi	Gorontalo
Kab. Gorontalo	Kab. Boalemo Kab. Gorontalo
Maluku	Maluku
Kab. Maluku Tenggara (South East Maluku)	Kab. Maluku Tenggara Barat (West South-East Maluku) Kab. Maluku Tenggara (South-East Maluku)
Kab. Maluku Tengah (Central Maluku)	Kab. Maluku Tengah (Central Maluku) Kab. Buru
North Maluku	North Maluku
Kab. Maluku Utara (North Maluku)	Kab. Maluku Utara (North Maluku) Kota Ternate

Irian Jaya	Papua
Kab. Fak-Fak	Kab. Fak-Fak Kab. Mimika
Kab. Sorong	Kab. Sorong Kota Sorong
Kab. Paniai	Kab. Nabire Kab. Paniai Kab. Puncak Jaya
South Kalimantan	South Kalimantan
Kab. Banjar	Kab. Banjar Kab. Banjar Baru
East Kalimantan	East Kalimantan
Kab. Kutai	Kab. Kutai Barat (West Kutai) Kab. Kutai Kab. Kutai Timur (East Kutai) Kota Bontang
Kab. Bulongan	Kab. Malinau Kab. Bulongan Kab. Nunukan Kota Tarakan
Central Sulawesi	Central Sulawesi
Kab. Banggai	Kab. Banggai Kepulauan (Banggai Islands) Kab. Banggai
Kab. Poso	Kab. Morowali Kab. Poso
Kab. Buol Toli-Toli	Kab. Toli-Toli Kab. Buol
South Sulawesi	South Sulawesi
Kab. Luwu	Kab. Luwu Kab. Luwu Utara (North Luwu)

1 Human Development Index (HDI) by province, 1999 and 2002

Province	Life Expectancy (years)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Mean years of schooling (years)		Adjusted real per capita expenditure (thousand rupiah)		HDI		HDI ranking		HDI reduction in shortfall
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999-2002
11. Nangroe Aceh Darussalam	67.6	67.7	93.1	95.8	7.2	7.8	562.8	557.5	65.3	66.0	12	15	1.3
12. North Sumatra	67.1	67.3	95.8	96.1	8.0	8.4	568.7	589.2	66.6	68.8	8	7	1.9
13. West Sumatra	65.5	66.1	94.7	95.1	7.4	8.0	577.3	589.0	65.8	67.5	9	8	1.7
14. Riau	67.8	68.1	95.5	96.5	7.3	8.3	579.6	588.3	67.3	69.1	4	5	1.8
15. Jambi	66.6	66.9	93.7	94.7	6.8	7.4	574.3	585.6	65.4	67.1	11	10	1.7
16. South Sumatra*	65.5	65.7	93.4	94.1	6.6	7.1	564.5	582.9	63.9	66.0	16	16	1.8
17. Bengkulu	65.2	65.4	92.7	93.0	7.0	7.6	576.6	586.6	64.8	66.2	13	14	1.6
18. Lampung	65.9	66.1	91.8	93.0	6.4	6.9	567.0	583.3	63.0	65.8	18	18	2.0
19. Bangka Belitung		65.6		91.7		6.6		588.2		65.4		20	
31. DKI Jakarta	71.1	72.3	97.8	98.2	9.7	10.4	593.4	616.9	72.5	75.6	1	1	2.2
32. West Java*	64.3	64.5	92.1	93.1	6.8	7.2	584.2	592.0	64.6	65.8	14	17	1.5
33. Central Java	68.3	68.9	84.8	85.7	6.0	6.5	583.8	594.2	64.6	66.3	15	13	1.7
34. D. I. Yogyakarta	70.9	72.4	85.5	85.9	7.9	8.1	597.8	611.3	68.7	70.8	2	3	1.9
35. East Java	65.5	66.0	81.3	83.2	5.9	6.5	579.0	593.8	61.8	64.1	22	25	1.8
36. Banten		62.4		93.8		7.9		608.7		66.6		11	
51. Bali	69.5	70.0	82.7	84.2	6.8	7.6	578.9	596.3	65.7	67.5	10	9	1.7
52. West Nusa Tenggara	57.8	59.3	72.8	77.8	5.2	5.8	565.9	583.1	54.2	57.8	26	30	2.0
53. East Nusa Tenggara	63.6	63.8	81.2	84.1	5.7	6.0	576.9	563.1	60.4	60.3	24	28	-0.7
61. West Kalimantan	64.1	64.4	83.2	86.9	5.6	6.3	571.2	580.4	60.6	62.9	23	27	1.8
62. Central Kalimantan	69.2	69.4	94.8	96.4	7.1	7.6	565.4	585.8	66.7	69.1	7	6	1.9
63. South Kalimantan	61.0	61.3	92.8	93.3	6.6	7.0	576.7	596.2	62.2	64.3	21	23	1.8
64. East Kalimantan	69.0	69.4	93.5	95.2	7.8	8.5	578.1	591.6	67.8	70.0	3	4	1.9
71. North Sulawesi*	68.1	70.9	97.2	98.8	7.6	8.6	578.3	587.9	67.1	71.3	6	2	2.3
72. Central Sulawesi	62.7	63.3	92.6	93.3	7.0	7.3	569.0	580.2	62.8	64.4	20	22	1.6
73. South Sulawesi	68.3	68.6	83.2	83.5	6.5	6.8	571.0	586.7	63.6	65.3	17	21	1.7
74. South East Sulawesi	65.0	65.1	87.1	88.2	6.8	7.3	571.8	577.9	62.9	64.1	19	26	1.5
75. Gorontalo		64.2		95.2		6.5		573.3		64.1		24	
81. Maluku*	67.4	65.5	95.8	96.3	7.6	8.0	576.9	576.3	67.2	66.5	5	12	-1.3
82. North Maluku		63.0		95.8		8.4		583.4		65.8		19	
91. Papua	64.5	65.2	71.2	74.4	5.6	6.0	579.9	578.2	58.8	60.1	25	29	1.5
Indonesia	66.2	66.2	88.4	89.5	6.7	7.1	578.8	591.2	64.3	65.8			1.6

Notes:

1. Nangroe Aceh Darussalam, Maluku, North Maluku and Papua use 2003 data (literacy, mean years of schooling).
2. The figure for Indonesia is an average of the provincial figures weighted by population.
3. The number before each province is the official area code.

* This province lost part of its area between 1999 and 2002. For a list of boundary changes, see page 95.

Source: BPS special tabulation

2 Gender-related Development Index (GDI) by province, 1999

Province	Life expectancy (year)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Mean years of schooling (years)		Proportion of labour force (%)		GDI	GDI ranking
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male		
11. D. I. Aceh	69.6	65.6	90.1	96.2	6.8	7.7	38.4	61.6	59.0	8
12. North Sumatra	69.1	65.1	93.6	98.0	7.5	8.5	41.0	59.0	61.2	3
13. West Sumatra	67.4	63.5	92.6	97.0	7.2	7.7	40.3	59.7	60.7	5
14. Riau	69.8	65.8	93.7	97.4	6.9	7.8	30.1	69.9	53.1	24
15. Jambi	68.6	64.7	90.5	96.9	6.1	7.4	31.6	68.4	54.6	18
16. South Sumatra	67.4	63.5	90.3	96.5	6.2	7.1	36.7	63.3	52.4	25
17. Bengkulu	67.1	63.3	89.4	95.9	6.5	7.5	39.5	60.5	59.4	7
18. Lampung	67.9	64.0	88.3	95.1	5.9	6.8	36.9	63.1	57.0	12
31. DKI Jakarta	73.2	69.3	96.8	98.9	9.0	10.4	34.6	65.4	61.2	2
32. West Java	66.2	62.4	89.2	95.2	6.2	7.3	32.4	67.6	54.6	17
33. Central Java	70.3	66.3	78.4	91.4	5.4	6.7	40.8	59.2	57.4	10
34. D. I. Yogyakarta	72.9	69.0	78.3	93.0	7.1	8.8	45.6	54.5	66.4	1
35. East Java	67.4	63.5	74.5	88.6	5.3	6.7	39.1	60.9	53.2	23
51. Bali	71.6	67.5	75.4	90.2	5.9	7.7	45.4	54.6	60.4	6
52. West Nusa Tenggara	59.4	55.9	65.4	81.2	4.5	6.0	42.9	57.1	45.9	26
53. East Nusa Tenggara	65.5	61.7	77.4	83.5	5.2	5.9	43.0	57.0	56.8	14
61. West Kalimantan	65.9	62.1	76.1	90.2	5.0	6.2	39.8	60.2	55.7	15
62. Central Kalimantan	71.2	67.3	92.8	96.9	6.6	7.5	34.9	65.1	57.9	9
63. South Kalimantan	62.8	59.1	89.4	96.3	5.9	7.2	41.1	58.9	56.9	13
64. East Kalimantan	71.0	67.0	90.0	96.8	7.1	8.5	31.0	69.0	53.5	21
71. North Sulawesi	70.0	66.1	97.3	97.2	7.5	7.6	28.5	71.5	53.9	20
72. Central Sulawesi	64.5	60.7	90.3	94.9	6.6	7.4	33.7	66.3	54.1	19
73. South Sulawesi	70.3	66.3	79.6	87.1	6.0	7.0	31.4	68.6	53.3	22
74. South East Sulawesi	66.9	63.1	82.6	91.8	6.2	7.4	36.5	63.5	57.4	11
81. Maluku	69.3	65.4	94.2	97.4	7.3	8.0	35.0	65.0	61.0	4
82. Irian Jaya	66.4	62.6	64.8	77.3	4.8	6.4	41.4	58.6	55.7	16

Note:

1. The number before each province is the official area code.

Source: BPS special tabulation

3 Gender-related Development Index (GDI) by province, 2002

Province	Life expectancy (year)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Mean years of schooling (years)		Proportion of labour force (%)		GDI	GDI ranking
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male		
11. Nangroe Aceh Darussalam	69.6	65.7	94.1	97.5	7.4	8.2	49.4	50.6	62.1	5
12. North Sumatra	69.2	65.3	94.3	97.9	8.0	8.9	41.3	58.7	61.5	6
13. West Sumatra	68.0	64.1	93.6	96.8	7.7	8.2	39.3	60.7	60.7	9
14. Riau	70.0	66.0	95.5	97.4	8.0	8.6	31.3	68.7	56.9	16
15. Jambi	68.8	64.8	92.1	97.3	6.7	8.0	33.2	66.8	53.3	27
16. South Sumatra*	67.5	63.7	91.4	96.8	6.7	7.6	39.5	60.5	55.5	22
17. Bengkulu	67.3	63.5	90.1	95.9	7.1	8.1	40.9	59.1	59.2	11
18. Lampung	68.0	64.1	89.8	96.0	6.4	7.4	35.7	64.3	57.0	14
19. Bangka Belitung	67.5	63.6	87.9	95.4	6.0	7.1	31.0	69.0	47.7	30
31. DKI Jakarta	74.2	70.3	97.2	99.3	9.8	11.1	36.6	63.4	66.7	1
32. West Java*	66.3	62.5	90.5	95.7	6.7	7.7	33.1	66.9	56.3	21
33. Central Java	70.8	66.8	80.0	91.6	5.9	7.2	40.6	59.4	58.7	12
34. D. I. Yogyakarta	74.2	70.4	77.5	90.4	7.3	9.0	44.4	55.6	65.2	2
35. East Java	67.9	64.0	77.3	89.5	5.9	7.2	39.1	60.9	56.3	19
36. Banten	64.3	60.5	91.1	96.6	7.2	8.5	31.8	68.2	54.9	24
51. Bali	71.9	67.9	77.5	90.9	6.7	8.4	43.6	56.4	61.2	7
52. West Nusa Tenggara	61.0	57.4	72.4	83.9	5.2	6.6	43.9	56.1	51.6	29
53. East Nusa Tenggara	65.6	61.8	81.4	87.1	5.6	6.4	42.2	57.8	56.3	20
61. West Kalimantan	66.2	62.4	81.7	92.0	5.8	6.9	38.2	61.8	57.0	13
62. Central Kalimantan	71.3	67.4	94.9	97.7	7.1	8.0	34.1	65.9	60.9	8
63. South Kalimantan	63.1	59.4	90.5	96.2	6.5	7.6	39.4	60.6	56.6	18
64. East Kalimantan	71.3	67.4	93.1	97.1	7.8	9.1	30.3	69.7	53.4	26
71. North Sulawesi*	72.8	68.8	98.7	98.9	8.5	8.6	30.8	69.2	62.1	4
72. Central Sulawesi	65.1	61.4	91.6	94.9	7.0	7.7	33.7	66.3	60.3	10
73. South Sulawesi	70.5	66.5	80.8	86.6	6.4	7.3	33.9	66.1	56.9	15
74. South East Sulawesi	67.0	63.2	84.3	92.4	6.7	7.9	38.6	61.4	56.8	17
75. Gorontalo	66.0	62.2	95.3	95.2	6.6	6.3	29.0	71.0	52.7	28
81. Maluku*	67.4	63.5	95.0	97.1	6.2	6.2	49.2	50.8	62.6	3
82. North Maluku	64.8	61.0	94.5	97.2	5.4	6.1	49.1	50.9	55.0	23
91. Papua	67.0	63.2	67.5	78.4	4.8	5.0	48.2	51.8	54.3	25
Indonesia	68.1	64.2	85.7	93.5	6.5	7.6	37.5	62.5	59.2	

Notes:

1. Nangroe Aceh Darussalam, Maluku, North Maluku and Papua use 2003 data (literacy rate, mean years of schooling and income proportion)

2. The number before each province is the official area code.

* This province lost part of its area between 1999 and 2002. For a list of boundary changes, see page 95.

Source: BPS special tabulation

4 Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) by province, 1999 and 2002

Province	Women in parliament (% of total)		Woman in senior official, managerial and technical staff positions (% of total)		Females in the labour force (% of total)		GEM		GEM ranking	
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002
11. Nangroe Aceh Darussalam	8.3	9.1	54.4	45.3	38.4	49.6	52.4	55.5	6	5
12. North Sumatra	2.8	3.6	53.8	50.4	41.1	41.3	47.3	48.4	16	17
13. West Sumatra	6.1	9.1	58.8	58.3	40.3	39.3	51.5	54.2	8	8
14. Riau	2.0	1.8	43.2	42.5	30.0	31.3	38.1	40.4	26	28
15. Jambi	8.0	8.9	37.5	40.7	31.6	33.2	46.8	46.8	17	21
16. South Sumatra*	3.2	14.7	52.4	49.9	36.7	39.5	41.7	56.9	25	3
17. Bengkulu	10.0	6.7	45.5	39.8	39.5	40.9	56.5	51.1	2	11
18. Lampung	4.5	6.7	46.1	49.2	37.1	35.7	48.2	50.3	13	14
19. Bangka Belitung		4.4		45.2		31.0		38.9		29
31. DKI Jakarta	7.9	7.1	34.9	35.9	34.5	36.6	46.4	50.3	18	13
32. West Java*	7.8	3.0	36.0	37.4	32.3	33.1	47.7	43.6	14	24
33. Central Java	6.7	6.3	44.7	42.8	40.8	40.6	51.2	51.0	9	12
34. D. I. Yogyakarta	7.8	9.1	46.7	37.4	45.6	44.4	58.8	56.1	1	4
35. East Java	11.1	11.0	45.9	38.9	39.1	39.1	54.4	54.9	4	7
36. Banten		9.3		33.0		31.8		48.6		16
51. Bali	6.1	0.0	35.5	31.4	45.2	43.6	50.5	42.3	10	26
52. West Nusa Tenggara	6.1	5.5	37.2	33.5	43.1	43.9	46.2	47.2	20	20
53. East Nusa Tenggara	2.1	3.6	35.7	34.4	43.0	42.2	46.4	46.2	18	22
61. West Kalimantan	6.3	3.6	43.2	38.9	39.6	38.2	52.2	47.9	7	19
62. Central Kalimantan	2.5	2.2	46.3	36.5	34.7	34.1	43.5	43.4	24	25
63. South Kalimantan	8.7	12.7	47.1	40.5	41.0	39.4	55.1	57.5	3	2
64. East Kalimantan	12.5	6.7	39.2	36.2	31.0	30.3	49.3	41.1	12	27
71. North Sulawesi*	7.5	11.1	54.9	46.6	28.5	30.8	45.1	55.1	22	6
72. Central Sulawesi	7.5	11.1	47.4	43.3	33.6	33.7	50.0	59.1	11	1
73. South Sulawesi	3.8	2.7	47.7	46.2	31.5	33.9	43.9	45.6	23	23
74. South East Sulawesi	2.5	6.7	40.2	34.8	36.4	38.6	46.0	48.0	21	18
75. Gorontalo		11.1		55.3		29.0		51.4		10
81. Maluku*	7.5	4.5	55.3	54.5	35.0	42.7	52.7	51.8	5	9
82. North Maluku		0.0		22.1		33.2		31.2		30
91. Papua	2.7	6.7	34.2	30.6	41.1	40.8	47.7	49.0	14	15
Indonesia		8.8		39.2		37.5	49.5	54.6		

Notes:

1. The number before each province is the official area code.

* This province lost part of its area between 1999 and 2002. For a list of boundary changes, see page 95.

Source: BPS special tabulation

5 Human Poverty Index (HPI) by province, 1999 and 2002

Province	People not expected to survive to age 40 (%)		Adult illiteracy rate		Population without access to clean water (%)		Population without access to health facilities (%)		Under nourished children under age five (%)		HPI		HPI ranking	
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002
11. Nangroe Aceh Darussalam	12.7	12.6	6.9	4.2	61.5	48.5	37.6	38.0	35.6	35.2	31.4	28.4	23	23
12. North Sumatra	13.5	13.3	4.2	3.9	47.9	41.8	20.9	30.4	35.3	33.0	24.5	24.8	11	15
13. West Sumatra	16.2	15.2	5.3	4.9	46.4	42.4	21.7	27.6	34.0	28.0	24.4	23.4	10	12
14. Riau	12.4	12.0	4.4	3.5	71.8	58.9	39.2	29.7	27.9	18.4	32.3	25.1	24	16
15. Jambi	14.2	13.9	6.3	5.3	57.3	47.4	21.5	23.1	32.9	25.0	26.3	22.7	13	9
16. South Sumatra*	16.2	16.0	6.6	5.9	59.7	52.7	28.9	36.0	26.4	28.2	27.3	27.7	17	21
17. Bengkulu	16.6	16.3	7.4	7.0	59.2	45.0	24.8	22.0	30.0	26.4	27.1	22.7	16	8
18. Lampung	15.4	15.2	8.2	7.0	54.4	45.9	34.5	29.8	29.1	24.2	27.9	23.9	18	13
19. Bangka Belitung		16.0		8.3		48.9		35.3		21.1		25.2	27	18
31. DKI Jakarta	7.9	6.7	2.2	1.8	40.2	30.3	2.0	2.9	23.7	23.2	15.5	13.2	1	1
32. West Java*	18.2	18.0	7.8	6.9	62.1	53.0	22.4	19.0	27.2	21.5	26.9	23.0	15	11
33. Central Java	11.7	10.9	15.2	14.3	47.8	39.8	17.1	20.9	30.5	25.0	23.2	21.0	7	6
34. D. I. Yogyakarta	8.2	6.7	14.5	14.1	48.9	38.9	8.6	7.7	17.3	16.9	18.5	16.1	2	2
35. East Java	16.2	15.3	18.7	16.8	43.0	36.7	17.1	22.2	30.7	25.5	23.4	21.7	8	7
36. Banten		21.7		6.2		55.8		23.5		20.5		25.1		17
51. Bali	11.7	9.5	17.3	15.8	34.2	27.8	14.9	19.8	21.0	18.7	18.7	17.3	3	3
52. West Nusa Tenggara	31.5	27.3	27.2	22.2	62.5	52.3	17.5	21.6	39.7	37.8	33.7	30.2	25	26
53. East Nusa Tenggara	19.5	19.2	19.6	15.9	41.9	46.8	38.2	32.8	38.7	38.8	29.5	28.9	21	24
61. West Kalimantan	18.6	18.1	16.8	13.1	78.4	78.5	43.3	50.1	42.0	33.2	38.7	38.0	26	30
62. Central Kalimantan	10.4	10.2	5.2	3.6	68.2	66.7	26.2	33.6	30.5	31.9	29.0	30.7	20	27
63. South Kalimantan	24.5	23.9	7.2	6.7	46.7	41.5	16.2	27.3	29.0	30.2	24.4	25.5	9	19
64. East Kalimantan	10.7	10.2	6.5	4.8	35.8	37.3	19.6	22.2	31.9	21.5	20.6	19.1	4	5
71. North Sulawesi*	12.0	8.4	2.8	1.2	44.5	35.7	26.1	18.4	25.8	21.9	22.7	17.8	5	4
72. Central Sulawesi	21.2	20.1	7.4	6.7	51.7	53.8	30.2	36.8	34.9	29.6	28.4	28.9	19	25
73. South Sulawesi	11.7	11.3	16.8	16.5	49.1	45.1	26.0	27.3	33.9	29.1	26.3	24.6	14	14
74. South East Sulawesi	17.0	16.8	12.9	11.8	43.6	41.3	21.3	37.4	27.1	28.3	22.9	25.8	6	20
75. Gorontalo		18.5		4.8		62.4		32.7		42.0		32.4		29
81. Maluku*	13.1	16.2	4.2	3.7	52.1	43.9	23.8	26.1	29.3	29.3	24.7	22.9	12	10
82. North Maluku		20.7		4.2		43.2		42.2		29.6		27.9	30	22
91. Papua	17.8	16.8	28.8	26.9	54.5	61.6	36.0	36.1	28.3	28.3	31.3	30.9	22	28
Indonesia	15.2	15.0	11.6	10.5	51.9	44.8	21.6	23.1	30.0	25.8	25.2	22.7		

Notes:

1. Nangroe Aceh Darussalam, Maluku, North Maluku and Papua use 2003 data (Illiteracy rate and access to clean water).

2. The number before each province is the official area code.

3. Data for population without access to health facilities is for 2001.

* This province lost part of its area between 1999 and 2002. For a list of boundary changes, see page 95.

Source: BPS special tabulation

6 Human Development Index (HDI) by district, 1999 and 2002

Province District	Live expectancy (years)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Mean years of schooling (years)		Adjusted real per capita expenditure (thousand rupiah)		HDI		HDI Ranking		HDI reduction in shortfall
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999-2002
11. Nangroe Aceh Darussalam	67.6	67.7	93.1	95.8	7.2	7.8	562.8	557.5	65.3	66.0	12	15	1.3
01. Simeulue		62.2		94.0		5.7		568.2		61.8		291	
02. Aceh Singkil		62.7		95.4		6.4		558.3		62.2		288	
03. South Aceh*	64.0	64.7	91.3	95.0	6.3	7.3	560.6	558.3	62.1	63.8	210	248	1.7
04. South East Aceh	67.8	68.3	90.7	95.1	7.0	8.6	552.8	557.5	63.9	66.8	154	148	2.0
05. East Aceh	67.3	67.9	93.9	96.5	7.0	7.6	565.5	565.2	65.4	66.7	107	152	1.5
06. Central Aceh	66.7	67.1	97.2	96.6	7.8	8.4	559.8	562.5	66.0	66.7	94	150	1.3
07. West Aceh*	68.1	68.4	91.2	94.4	6.2	7.5	561.5	554.0	64.3	65.6	145	183	1.5
08. Aceh Besar	69.2	69.5	94.4	94.4	8.0	8.3	559.6	559.7	66.8	67.2	76	136	1.1
09. Piddie	67.6	67.7	87.6	96.4	6.7	8.3	567.6	573.9	64.1	67.8	149	115	2.2
10. Bireuen		72.7		96.9		9.0		566.4		70.5		63	
11. North Aceh*	68.4	68.9	94.5	97.9	7.3	8.9	524.2	530.3	63.1	65.9	179	173	2.0
71. Banda Aceh	68.2	68.5	97.7	98.9	10.3	11.1	583.0	586.8	70.5	71.9	23	39	1.7
72. Sabang	68.6	68.8	94.8	96.5	8.4	9.1	518.2	579.6	63.7	69.5	162	75	2.5
12. North Sumatera	67.1	67.3	95.8	96.1	8.0	8.4	568.7	589.2	66.6	68.8	8	7	1.9
01. Nias	66.4	66.8	85.7	82.9	5.7	5.7	413.7	566.5	50.4	61.8	288	292	2.8
02. Mandailing Natal		62.0		96.5		6.8		575.9		63.7		255	
03. South Tapanuli*	64.5	65.2	99.3	99.4	7.7	8.6	561.6	587.3	65.2	68.4	114	96	2.1
04. Central Tapanuli	65.5	65.6	93.8	94.7	6.9	7.6	537.6	575.4	62.1	65.8	207	174	2.1
05. North Tapanuli*	65.2	65.4	96.2	97.2	8.2	8.3	566.9	582.2	65.7	67.3	103	134	1.7
06. Toba Samosir		66.9		96.2		9.1		594.7		69.5		73	
07. Labuhan Batu	65.5	65.9	96.5	96.0	7.3	7.6	550.9	589.3	64.0	67.3	150	132	2.1
08. Asahan	66.9	67.2	93.7	94.1	6.9	6.9	567.4	587.8	65.1	67.0	117	143	1.8
09. Simalungun	67.2	67.4	93.6	96.4	7.1	8.0	563.1	586.2	65.1	68.3	119	98	2.1
10. Dairi	65.4	65.9	96.8	96.8	7.6	7.9	509.8	582.2	61.1	67.2	232	137	2.5
11. Karo	70.6	71.0	95.5	97.6	7.9	8.7	576.2	582.9	69.1	70.9	36	54	1.8
12. Deli Serdang	66.0	66.3	94.0	95.1	7.7	8.3	577.9	595.1	66.1	68.4	90	95	1.9
13. Langkat	68.8	67.1	97.2	97.4	7.7	8.2	561.3	583.6	67.1	68.3	70	97	1.5
71. Sibolga	68.4	68.6	98.5	99.1	8.8	9.6	573.1	585.1	68.9	70.7	37	58	1.8
72. Tanjung Balai	66.9	67.2	97.0	96.3	7.8	8.4	570.3	576.5	66.8	67.8	77	118	1.4
73. Pematang Siantar	70.1	70.9	98.4	98.7	9.5	10.3	579.9	606.9	70.9	74.1	17	10	2.2
74. Tebing Tinggi	69.5	70.0	97.8	97.6	8.9	9.2	573.0	595.3	69.5	71.6	31	43	1.9
75. Medan	69.2	69.4	98.8	99.1	9.9	10.5	579.8	606.3	70.8	73.5	19	15	2.1
76. Binjai	69.1	69.4	97.3	97.7	8.9	9.6	565.1	594.7	68.5	71.6	47	44	2.1
13. West Sumatera	65.5	66.1	94.7	95.1	7.4	8.0	577.3	589.0	65.8	67.5	9	8	1.7
01. Kepulauan Mentawai		67.1		90.8		5.8		571.0		64.1		238	
02. South Pesisir	64.3	64.8	93.4	93.9	6.9	7.4	576.0	587.1	64.4	65.9	143	170	1.6
03. Solok	60.2	61.6	94.7	95.8	6.2	6.8	572.9	581.9	61.6	63.7	228	253	1.8
04. Sawah Lunto/Sijunjung	60.4	62.2	91.7	87.3	7.0	6.3	576.8	578.2	61.9	61.5	216	299	-1.0
05. Tanah Datar	67.2	67.4	93.2	95.5	7.1	7.8	576.2	589.8	66.1	68.2	91	101	1.8
06. Padang Pariaman*	64.4	64.9	93.5	93.3	6.5	6.8	580.0	590.5	64.4	65.7	139	178	1.5
07. Agam	67.2	67.3	94.2	95.5	6.9	7.8	578.1	587.5	66.3	68.0	87	105	1.7
08. Limapuluh Koto	64.7	65.3	94.8	97.5	6.8	7.3	574.2	583.5	64.6	66.7	135	149	1.8
09. Pasaman	61.1	62.1	93.9	94.4	6.6	7.2	570.0	586.4	62.0	64.4	214	227	1.8
71. Padang	68.8	68.8	97.2	98.2	9.6	10.8	585.4	607.3	70.4	73.2	24	20	2.1
72. Solok	66.3	66.6	97.6	97.3	8.7	9.7	579.8	604.1	68.0	70.7	59	61	2.0
73. Sawah Lunto	70.1	70.5	97.4	96.6	7.8	8.5	571.8	589.7	68.8	70.8	41	56	1.9
74. Padang Panjang	69.2	69.5	97.4	98.5	9.5	10.2	586.9	608.7	70.8	73.4	18	18	2.1
75. Bukit Tinggi	69.8	70.1	98.7	98.0	9.7	10.2	578.9	609.6	70.9	73.6	16	13	2.1
76. Payakumbuh	66.8	67.1	97.1	96.3	8.4	9.0	578.6	590.0	67.9	69.2	62	83	1.6

Province District	Live expectancy (years)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Mean years of schooling (years)		Adjusted real per capita expenditure (thousand rupiah)		HDI		HDI Ranking		HDI reduction in shortfall
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999-2002
14. Riau	67.8	68.1	95.5	96.5	7.3	8.3	579.6	588.3	67.3	69.1	4	5	1.8
01. Kuantan Sengingi		65.2		98.0		7.7		578.4		66.7		155	
02. Indragiri Hulu*	64.8	65.0	92.8	95.5	6.7	7.3	574.2	577.4	64.2	65.6	147	184	1.6
03. Indragiri Hilir	68.0	68.1	96.8	98.1	6.2	6.7	571.5	581.5	66.3	67.8	58	117	1.6
04. Pelalawan		66.4		94.1		6.0	585.2	588.4		65.9		171	
05. Siak		70.5		98.2		8.8		587.9		71.2		51	
06. Kampar*	65.7	66.0	95.7	97.8	6.3	7.7	577.7	589.4	65.3	67.8	110	109	1.9
07. Rokan Hulu		63.3		95.0		6.4		581.4		64.2		234	
08. Bengkalis*	68.7	69.1	95.5	95.3	7.0	8.2	570.9	588.9	66.9	69.4	74	77	2.0
09. Rokan Hilir		66.1		95.4		7.1		574.5		65.8		175	
10. Kepulauan Riau*	68.3	68.8	90.9	88.3	6.6	6.9	585.2	596.1	66.5	67.3	84	135	1.3
11. Karimun		68.6		94.4		7.4		601.4		69.3		80	
12. Natuna		65.9		90.6		6.9		576.7		64.7		217	
71. Pekanbaru	70.2	70.4	99.5	99.3	10.0	11.1	581.2	591.7	71.7	73.4	10	17	1.8
72. Batam	69.3	69.7	96.3	99.0	9.1	10.9	596.3	597.3	70.9	73.2	15	19	2.0
73. Dumai		69.8		98.9		9.8		585.2		71.5		45	
15. Jambi	66.6	66.9	93.7	94.7	6.8	7.4	574.3	585.6	65.4	67.1	11	10	1.7
01. Kerinci	68.2	68.9	94.9	93.1	7.7	7.3	576.8	586.6	67.5	68.0	64	106	1.1
02. Merangin		66.3		95.7		6.8		581.9		66.3		161	
03. Sarolangun*	66.2	66.6	92.8	90.2	6.3	6.0	578.2	585.3	65.0	65.0	124	203	-0.5
04. Batanghari*	65.7	66.2	95.2	96.8	6.0	6.9	573.6	582.9	64.6	66.7	136	154	1.8
05. Muara Jambi		66.3		94.0		6.8		589.3		66.6		158	
06. East Tanjung Jabung		66.9		93.9		6.2		575.4		65.3		192	
07. West Tanjung Jabung	67.8		92.1		5.9		554.4		63.6		168		
08. Tebo		68.8		96.0		7.2		582.9		68.2		102	
08. Bungo Tebo	63.6	65.7		91.9		6.5		581.9		64.9		207	
09. Bungo		62.6		94.6		6.9		583.8		64.2		232	
71. Jambi	68.4	68.8	95.3	97.8	8.5	10.0	585.1	592.4	68.9	71.4	38	46	2.0
16. South Sumatera*	65.5	65.7	93.4	94.1	6.6	7.1	564.5	582.9	63.9	66.0	16	16	1.8
01. Ogan Komering Ulu	67.8	68.0	91.5	92.2	6.2	6.5	567.3	585.4	64.7	66.6	134	157	1.7
02. Ogan Komering Hilir	62.5	62.8	93.4	93.3	5.5	6.3	543.3	576.5	59.8	63.1	254	268	2.0
03. Muara Enim (Liot)	63.8	64.3	95.4	94.0	6.5	6.5	561.4	576.5	63.1	64.2	185	236	1.4
04. Lahat	63.3	63.8	96.2	96.6	6.8	7.1	560.4	577.8	63.1	65.1	181	199	1.8
05. Musi Rawas	61.3	61.8	91.2	91.2	6.2	6.4	559.2	575.4	60.4	62.0	249	289	1.6
06. Musi Banyuasin	66.7	66.9	93.3	92.1	5.5	5.9	435.7	574.5	53.8	64.6	279	220	2.9
71. Palembang	67.8	68.3	95.9	97.8	8.7	9.7	577.4	596.1	68.3	71.2	51	50	2.1
17. Bengkulu	65.2	65.4	92.7	93.0	7.0	7.6	576.6	586.6	64.8	66.2	13	14	1.6
01. South Bengkulu	63.9	64.2	90.4	93.5	6.2	7.4	564.7	579.3	62.0	65.0	213	204	2.0
02. Rejang Lebong	62.2	62.6	92.5	93.0	6.5	6.8	576.4	588.6	62.7	64.2	196	233	1.6
03. North Bengkulu	65.6	65.9	90.4	89.2	5.8	6.5	570.8	581.0	63.2	64.4	178	224	1.5
71. Bengkulu	69.3	69.5	98.3	98.4	10.1	10.6	592.5	596.1	71.8	72.7	9	31	1.5
18. Lampung	65.9	66.1	91.8	93.0	6.4	6.9	567.0	583.3	63.0	65.8	18	18	2.0
01. West Lampung	65.1	63.8	92.4	93.8	6.0	6.9	561.7	562.8	62.8	63.1	190	267	0.9
02. Tanggamus		66.0		92.1		6.5		586.1		65.5		189	
03. South Lampung*	65.1	65.2	91.7	91.1	6.1	6.3	570.7	582.4	63.4	64.4	174	226	1.4
04. East Lampung		68.1		90.2		6.2		582.1		65.7		176	
05. Central Lampung*	66.8	67.2	89.2	93.5	6.2	6.9	571.4	587.7	63.9	66.9	155	147	2.0
06. North Lampung*	65.1	65.4	92.2	96.0	5.6	7.2	538.5	583.1	60.7	66.3	246	162	2.4
07. Way Kanan		66.3		94.5		6.0		569.2		64.5		222	
08. Tulang Bawang		64.7		92.3		6.1		573.6		63.5		260	
71. Bandar Lampung	67.7	67.8	96.3	96.5	8.7	9.6	580.2	594.9	68.5	70.5	48	65	1.8
72. Metro		71.8		96.5		9.5		605.3		73.4		16	

Province District	Live expect- ancy (years)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Mean years of schooling (years)		Adjusted real per capita expenditure (thousand rupiah)		HDI		HDI Ranking		HDI reduction in shortfall
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999-2002
19. Bangka Belitung	65.6		91.7		6.6		588.2		65.4		20		
01. Bangka	66.4	66.3	87.7	89.8	6.0	5.9	575.2	588.4	63.5	64.8	171	211	1.5
02. Belitung	66.9	66.8	93.5	94.4	6.7	6.9	579.2	584.2	65.9	66.6	98	156	1.3
71. Pangkal Pinang	68.3	68.2	93.4	95.2	7.9	8.8	585.1	593.1	68.0	69.6	58	71	1.7
31. DKI Jakarta	71.1	72.3	97.8	98.2	9.7	10.4	593.4	616.9	72.5	75.6	1	1	2.2
71. South Jakarta	71.1	71.7	97.7	98.3	10.0	10.7	623.8	619.1	75.1	75.7	1	2	1.3
72. East Jakarta	71.5	72.5	98.4	98.5	10.1	10.9	588.5	614.1	72.8	76.0	4	1	2.3
73. Central Jakarta	70.2	70.7	97.7	98.1	9.7	10.5	585.0	617.2	71.3	74.8	14	7	2.3
74. West Jakarta	71.4	72.3	97.8	97.9	9.4	10.0	589.7	614.4	72.2	75.0	7	5	2.2
75. North Jakarta	71.2	72.2	97.1	98.2	9.2	9.8	586.3	616.7	71.5	75.1	12	4	2.3
32. West Java*	64.3	64.5	92.1	93.1	6.8	7.2	584.2	592.0	64.6	65.8	14	17	1.5
01. Bogor*	65.2	66.1	93.7	91.5	8.0	6.2	587.5	591.4	66.6	65.6	82	181	-1.4
02. Sukabumi	62.4	63.0	96.0	94.3	5.7	5.9	579.2	585.2	63.2	63.8	176	251	1.2
03. Cianjur	63.6	64.1	95.6	95.7	5.7	6.1	576.5	580.6	63.6	64.5	167	223	1.3
04. Bandung	66.6	66.8	94.7	97.0	7.0	8.1	584.5	593.2	66.6	68.8	81	87	1.9
05. Garut	59.4	59.9	96.8	95.7	6.2	6.7	574.4	583.1	61.7	62.8	223	275	1.4
06. Tasik Malaya	65.5	66.1	96.2	97.4	6.3	6.9	577.7	587.8	65.3	67.1	109	141	1.7
07. Ciamis	63.9	64.0	93.9	95.3	6.4	6.4	588.9	589.3	64.8	65.3	127	194	1.1
08. Kuningan	64.9	65.1	91.7	90.5	6.1	6.4	592.6	593.0	65.0	65.0	123	201	0.4
09. Cirebon	63.0	63.3	86.6	87.0	5.7	6.0	581.1	585.3	61.6	62.4	227	282	1.3
10. Majalengka	63.0	63.5	88.9	91.0	6.0	6.4	587.0	593.9	62.8	64.4	192	225	1.6
11. Sumedang	66.5	66.7	95.6	95.3	6.8	7.0	584.6	592.9	66.6	67.5	79	128	1.4
12. Indramayu	63.3	63.7	66.7	76.2	3.9	5.1	588.1	607.0	56.5	61.2	269	303	2.2
13. Subang	65.0	65.6	86.2	84.2	5.4	5.3	591.0	591.3	63.1	63.0	182	270	-0.6
14. Purwakarta	63.5	64.1	94.5	94.9	6.2	6.8	585.5	590.1	64.3	65.6	144	185	1.5
15. Karawang	62.4	62.9	84.8	87.2	5.4	6.4	584.7	590.2	60.9	62.9	237	272	1.7
16. Bekasi	66.6	67.0	87.6	91.1	6.8	7.4	582.4	591.5	64.7	66.9	131	144	1.9
71. Bogor	67.7	68.0	97.4	97.4	9.3	9.6	586.6	609.5	69.7	71.9	29	40	1.9
72. Sukabumi	65.7	66.2	97.6	98.6	8.6	8.8	590.1	592.4	68.4	69.2	49	82	1.4
73. Bandung	68.2	68.8	98.3	98.9	9.6	10.3	589.7	606.8	70.7	73.0	20	24	2.0
74. Cirebon	67.1	67.6	94.6	95.3	8.4	8.9	586.4	591.1	68.1	69.2	55	81	1.5
75. Bekasi	66.6	68.1	97.1	98.0	9.4	10.4		612.2	68.7	72.8	43	26	2.4
76. Depok		71.8		96.1		9.7		611.8		73.9		11	
33. Central Java	68.3	68.9	84.8	85.7	6.0	6.5	583.8	594.2	64.6	66.3	15	13	1.7
01. Cilacap	67.2	67.8	84.2	87.0	5.4	6.1	579.9	590.1	63.1	65.3	186	193	1.8
02. Banyumas	68.1	68.6	91.2	89.6	6.4	6.3	581.0	591.3	66.0	66.7	95	153	1.2
03. Purbalingga	67.4	67.6	86.2	88.8	5.3	5.6	572.2	586.7	63.0	65.0	187	202	1.8
04. Banjarnegara	67.4	67.7	85.9	82.3	5.6	5.3	577.9	590.0	63.6	63.7	166	254	0.7
05. Kebumen	67.2	67.6	87.2	85.6	5.9	6.2	590.1	598.2	64.9	65.6	126	182	1.3
06. Purworejo	67.7	68.0	86.3	88.5	6.3	7.1	590.5	614.1	65.3	68.4	112	93	2.1
07. Wonosobo	67.7	68.5	86.5	85.1	5.4	5.6	580.4	587.5	63.9	64.7	156	214	1.3
08. Magelang	68.0	68.8	86.2	89.0	6.3	7.0	585.9	591.6	65.1	67.2	118	138	1.8
09. Boyolali	69.4	69.6	81.4	81.9	6.2	6.6	582.0	590.6	64.4	65.7	140	180	1.5
10. Klaten	69.1	69.8	81.1	82.8	6.7	7.3	589.0	607.3	65.1	67.8	121	116	2.0
11. Sukoharjo	69.1	69.3	84.0	82.2	7.4	7.9	591.8	607.0	66.5	67.7	83	121	1.5
12. Wonogiri	71.1	71.6	76.4	77.4	5.6	5.9	584.2	607.6	64.0	66.5	152	159	1.9
13. Karanganyar	70.1	71.8	78.3	78.9	6.1	7.0	587.6	617.1	64.5	68.5	138	90	2.2
14. Sragen	70.8	71.5	71.6	75.3	5.3	6.0	581.3	592.7	62.3	64.9	205	209	1.9
15. Grobogan	67.8	68.1	85.6	86.5	5.6	6.3	585.0	589.3	64.2	65.5	146	187	1.5
16. Blora	69.9	70.3	74.1	80.6	4.8	5.7	576.4	586.6	61.6	64.7	226	213	2.0
17. Rembang	68.0	68.6	84.8	85.7	5.9	5.8	588.6	593.2	64.7	65.5	128	188	1.3
18. Pati	71.6	72.5	80.0	87.4	5.6	6.5	584.8	593.6	65.2	68.6	116	89	2.1

Province District	Live expectancy (years)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Mean years of schooling (years)		Adjusted real per capita expenditure (thousand rupiah)		HDI		HDI Ranking		HDI reduction in shortfall
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999-2002
19. Kudus	67.8	68.2	88.8	88.7	6.9	7.1	586.7	592.6	66.0	66.9	93	146	1.4
20. Jepara	69.6	70.0	83.1	87.0	6.0	6.5	589.5	591.0	65.3	66.9	108	145	1.7
21. Demak	68.7	68.9	89.2	85.8	6.1	6.4	583.6	595.8	65.9	66.4	100	160	1.1
22. Semarang	70.6	71.3	89.4	88.5	6.6	6.8	591.0	607.8	67.9	69.5	61	74	1.7
23. Temanggung	70.7	71.4	91.0	91.6	5.6	6.3	584.6	604.3	67.1	69.6	69	70	2.0
24. Kendal	64.7	65.0	84.3	88.6	5.4	6.5	584.9	604.6	62.1	65.5	208	186	2.1
25. Batang	68.1	68.7	85.8	84.9	5.1	5.9	579.5	593.3	63.6	65.5	163	190	1.7
26. Pekalongan	66.5	66.6	84.2	84.6	5.3	5.6	568.9	591.1	61.8	63.9	219	247	1.8
27. Pemalang	64.5	65.2	82.3	82.2	5.2	5.4	575.8	588.8	60.7	62.2	245	287	1.6
28. Tegal	65.2	66.2	83.5	82.8	5.6	5.6	583.1	592.6	62.2	63.3	206	262	1.4
29. Brebes	63.3	64.3	83.0	81.1	4.8	5.0	580.2	590.6	60.2	61.3	251	301	1.4
71. Magelang	69.1	69.3	93.4	95.6	9.0	9.8	597.5	617.5	70.2	73.0	25	25	2.1
72. Surakarta	70.9	71.1	92.9	94.6	8.8	9.8	591.9	607.9	70.5	73.0	22	23	2.0
73. Salatiga	69.5	70.2	95.7	93.3	9.2	9.5	602.7	617.9	71.5	72.8	11	28	1.6
74. Semarang	70.2	70.4	93.6	95.5	8.7	10.0	591.5	615.8	70.2	73.6	26	14	2.2
75. Pekalongan	68.1	68.6	89.8	91.6	7.1	7.8	577.2	592.0	65.9	68.2	99	100	1.9
76. Tegal	66.6	66.9	86.5	91.0	6.6	7.6	594.5	611.4	65.3	68.5	113	91	2.1
34. D. I. Yogyakarta	70.9	72.4	85.5	85.9	7.9	8.1	597.8	611.3	68.7	70.8	2	3	1.9
01. Kulon Progo	71.3	72.6	82.8	83.1	6.8	7.3	583.7	607.8	66.4	69.4	85	76	2.1
02. Bantul	69.5	70.4	82.6	83.4	6.8	7.6	590.0	607.0	65.8	68.4	102	94	2.0
03. Gunung Kidul	70.1	70.3	83.0	83.4	7.1	7.3	552.4	594.7	63.6	67.1	165	140	2.1
04. Sleman	71.6	72.6	85.7	88.6	8.5	9.7	601.5	612.4	69.8	72.7	27	30	2.1
71. Yogyakarta	72.1	72.9	95.1	94.9	10.3	10.7	598.9	615.4	73.4	75.3	2	3	1.9
35. East Java	65.5	66.0	81.3	83.2	5.9	6.5	579.0	593.8	61.8	64.1	22	25	1.8
01. Pacitan	69.8	70.0	80.8	82.0	5.3	6.0	582.8	594.0	63.9	65.7	153	179	1.7
02. Ponorogo	66.6	66.9	75.7	76.8	5.3	5.7	575.7	593.4	60.4	62.6	248	281	1.8
03. Trenggalek	69.4	69.8	87.2	88.0	5.7	6.3	579.7	608.0	65.2	68.2	115	99	2.1
04. Tulungagung	70.1	70.3	85.0	87.7	6.1	6.6	586.5	594.4	65.9	67.6	96	127	1.7
05. Blitar	68.5	68.9	82.4	85.0	5.7	6.2	581.9	613.8	63.8	67.4	159	129	2.2
06. Kediri	67.8	68.1	85.6	87.5	6.3	6.6	577.2	591.0	64.2	66.1	148	165	1.7
07. Malang	66.3	66.6	84.2	86.4	5.5	6.4	577.4	595.6	62.4	65.2	203	196	2.0
08. Lumajang	64.9	65.1	77.2	78.7	5.2	5.6	575.0	586.9	59.7	61.4	256	300	1.6
09. Jember	59.7	59.9	72.5	77.9	4.4	5.5	570.4	585.7	54.9	58.1	276	320	1.9
10. Banyuwangi	64.2	64.5	81.9	82.8	5.6	6.0	583.2	591.3	61.3	62.6	230	279	1.5
11. Bondowoso	58.8	59.0	63.8	65.3	4.3	4.7	583.2	583.3	53.4	54.1	282	336	1.1
12. Situbondo	61.3	61.5	64.4	66.6	4.4	4.5	582.3	590.6	54.8	56.2	277	333	1.5
13. Probolinggo	58.5	59.3	68.3	73.4	4.1	4.9	580.7	591.7	53.8	56.8	280	331	1.9
14. Pasuruan	61.3	61.5	83.0	87.4	5.3	6.1	571.6	585.2	58.9	61.5	162	298	1.9
15. Sidoarjo	67.9	68.2	95.4	96.0	8.8	9.4	587.9	612.5	69.1	71.7	35	42	2.0
16. Mojokerto	67.5	68.1	87.5	89.4	6.2	6.6	580.1	606.4	64.6	67.7	137	124	2.1
17. Jombang	66.6	66.9	88.5	88.4	7.0	7.1	582.7	591.5	65.1	66.0	122	166	1.4
18. Nganjuk	66.9	67.2	85.1	84.4	6.1	6.5	576.9	590.0	63.4	64.7	173	216	1.5
19. Madiun	66.8	67.3	79.7	81.1	5.6	6.4	589.8	592.1	62.8	64.2	191	235	1.5
20. Magetan	69.6	69.9	81.5	86.6	6.0	7.1	585.4	593.2	64.7	67.4	130	130	2.0
21. Ngawi	67.0	67.3	79.4	78.3	5.3	5.7	580.5	582.1	61.9	62.3	217	285	1.0
22. Bojonegoro	65.5	65.6	78.6	77.0	5.4	5.5	560.5	579.4	59.4	60.6	258	309	1.5
23. Tuban	65.8	65.9	73.8	76.9	4.8	5.2	579.3	585.7	59.5	61.1	257	306	1.6
24. Lamongan	66.4	66.5	80.3	83.1	5.7	6.3	577.4	589.6	61.8	63.9	221	244	1.8
25. Gresik	67.3	68.1	91.3	90.7	7.6	7.4	580.1	615.8	66.4	69.3	86	78	2.1
26. Bangkalan	60.9	61.4	63.0	73.6	3.7	5.0	563.6	584.1	52.4	57.6	283	326	2.2
27. Sampang	56.7	57.5	54.9	56.2	2.5	2.9	564.3	580.0	47.3	49.7	292	340	1.6
28. Pamekasan	61.1	61.7	72.7	73.8	4.6	5.3	565.4	588.5	55.5	58.3	274	319	1.8
29. Sumenep	60.9	61.2	66.8	69.6	3.7	4.1	583.8	592.5	54.7	56.5	278	332	1.6
71. Kediri	68.4	68.6	92.9	95.3	8.5	9.3	588.8	600.6	68.6	70.8	45	55	1.9
72. Blitar	69.6	70.1	92.3	95.2	8.2	9.0	588.0	596.0	68.9	71.0	39	52	1.9

Province District	Live expectancy (years)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Mean years of schooling (years)		Adjusted real per capita expenditure (thousand rupiah)		HDI		HDI Ranking		HDI reduction in shortfall
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999-2002
25. Gresik	67.3	68.1	91.3	90.7	7.6	7.4	580.1	615.8	66.4	69.3	86	78	2.1
26. Bangkalan	60.9	61.4	63.0	73.6	3.7	5.0	563.6	584.1	52.4	57.6	283	326	2.2
27. Sampang	56.7	57.5	54.9	56.2	2.5	2.9	564.3	580.0	47.3	49.7	292	340	1.6
28. Pamekasan	61.1	61.7	72.7	73.8	4.6	5.3	565.4	588.5	55.5	58.3	274	319	1.8
29. Sumenep	60.9	61.2	66.8	69.6	3.7	4.1	583.8	592.5	54.7	56.5	278	332	1.6
71. Kediri	68.4	68.6	92.9	95.3	8.5	9.3	588.8	600.6	68.6	70.8	45	55	1.9
72. Blitar	69.6	70.1	92.3	95.2	8.2	9.0	588.0	596.0	68.9	71.0	39	52	1.9
73. Malang	66.2	66.6	94.4	94.9	8.6	10.0	590.0	616.1	68.0	71.4	60	49	2.2
74. Probolinggo	67.5	68.0	86.2	88.2	7.1	7.2	581.7	604.8	65.1	67.7	120	123	1.9
75. Pasuruan	64.1	64.7	87.7	91.9	7.1	8.1	583.0	608.9	63.6	67.7	164	125	2.2
76. Mojokerto	70.0	70.3	93.5	96.1	8.4	9.6	575.7	609.3	68.6	72.8	46	27	2.4
77. Madiun	69.1	69.3	91.7	94.0	8.7	9.9	585.3	593.0	68.7	70.7	44	57	1.9
78. Surabaya	68.3	68.6	93.8	95.9	9.0	9.8	589.4	609.5	69.3	72.0	33	37	2.1
36. Banten		62.4		93.8		7.9		608.7		66.6		11	
01. Pandeglang	61.6	61.6	93.2	94.7	5.3	5.9	570.2	586.9	61.2	63.2	231	264	1.7
02. Lebak	62.0	61.9	90.8	90.2	5.5	5.3	570.3	581.9	61.0	61.6	233	297	1.1
03. Tangerang	63.8	63.8	88.7	93.7	6.6	8.6	584.7	615.6	63.5	68.4	169	92	2.4
04. Serang*	59.6	60.2	92.2	91.9	5.9	6.8	577.7	602.3	60.8	63.7	240	256	1.9
71. Tangerang	67.1	67.2	94.3	96.9	8.8	10.1	585.7	615.1	68.3	72.2	52	36	2.3
72. Cilegon		67.3		98.5		9.6		596.1		70.7		60	
51. Bali	69.5	70.0	82.7	84.2	6.8	7.6	587.9	596.3	65.7	67.5	10	9	1.7
01. Jembrana	69.8	70.5	84.7	86.5	6.1	7.1	583.7	607.8	65.5	68.9	106	86	2.1
02. Tabanan	72.6	73.7	85.4	85.1	7.1	7.4	595.0	605.1	68.7	70.4	42	66	1.8
03. Badung	70.5	71.1	87.5	88.9	8.1	8.9	588.1	595.9	68.2	70.1	53	67	1.8
04. Gianyar	70.7	71.5	77.6	82.3	6.3	7.6	582.4	594.3	64.4	67.7	141	120	2.1
05. Klungkung	67.1	67.3	78.6	78.1	6.1	6.2	587.2	608.2	62.9	64.6	189	221	1.7
06. Bangli	70.5	71.0	78.5	83.1	5.5	6.2	588.9	594.8	64.4	66.7	142	151	1.9
07. Karangasem	66.4	66.6	66.1	68.0	4.1	4.7	578.0	587.8	57.5	59.3	263	314	1.6
08. Buleleng	66.0	66.1	83.2	82.6	6.2	6.3	584.0	593.9	63.1	63.9	183	245	1.3
71. Denpasar	71.6	72.4	93.8	94.7	9.7	10.7	595.7	614.2	72.1	74.9	8	6	2.2
52. West Nusa Tenggara	57.8	59.3	72.8	77.8	5.2	5.8	565.9	583.1	54.2	57.8	26	30	2.0
01. West Lombok	56.5	57.9	63.8	72.9	4.0	5.0	559.2	577.8	49.9	55.0	289	335	2.2
02. Central Lombok	56.0	57.5	64.4	68.1	4.3	4.8	567.6	583.3	50.7	53.9	287	338	1.9
03. East Lombok	56.0	57.7	68.6	75.5	4.8	5.5	568.9	582.3	52.1	56.1	284	334	2.0
04. Sumbawa	56.5	58.1	84.7	87.6	6.0	7.0	568.6	593.0	56.8	61.0	268	307	2.1
05. Dompu	57.9	59.5	82.0	79.8	6.0	6.5	558.5	577.4	56.2	58.4	270	316	1.7
06. Bima	58.5	58.6	81.8	82.4	6.4	6.9	565.3	580.0	57.3	59.0	264	315	1.6
71. Mataram	62.8	63.1	87.8	95.0	7.8	7.4	578.1	585.9	63.1	65.2	184	198	1.8
53. East Nusa Tenggara	63.6	63.8	81.2	84.1	5.7	6.0	576.9	563.1	60.4	60.3	24	28	-0.6
01. West Sumba	61.7	62.4	69.0	71.6	5.0	5.3	437.6	526.0	45.4	53.4	293	339	2.4
02. East Sumba	59.0	59.4	77.2	81.0	5.4	5.5	563.0	563.4	55.7	56.9	273	329	1.4
03. Kupang	63.4	64.2	75.5	80.7	4.9	5.4	557.7	531.6	57.0	56.9	266	328	-0.6
04. Southern Central Timor	65.2	65.7	67.6	79.1	4.3	5.3	472.9	536.1	49.2	57.7	290	325	2.6
05. Northern Central Timor	65.1	65.4	79.5	79.5	5.3	5.6	487.6	558.2	53.7	59.5	281	312	2.3
06. Belu	63.5	63.7	73.4	79.3	5.0	5.8	494.7	552.9	51.8	58.3	285	318	2.4
07. Alor	62.9	63.1	89.5	92.8	6.2	7.0	486.0	491.9	55.3	57.1	275	327	1.6
08. Lembata		64.9		91.3		5.9		552.0		61.6		296	
09. East Flores*	66.0	66.1	82.4	84.6	5.4	5.9	528.8	574.8	58.1	62.6	262	280	2.2
10. Sikka	65.7	65.9	84.6	85.6	5.3	5.4	440.0	524.4	51.5	58.4	286	317	2.4
11. Ende	62.8	63.1	88.8	90.3	5.6	6.3	501.3	560.0	55.8	61.3	272	302	2.3
12. Ngada	64.7	65.1	92.3	91.0	6.3	6.4	566.5	576.9	63.2	64.0	177	242	1.3
13. Manggarai	64.1	64.2	83.0	85.8	5.2	5.6	579.4	558.2	60.9	60.3	235	310	-1.2
71. Kupang	63.4	69.8	94.6	97.5	9.6	10.1	-	578.8	66.6	70.9	80	53	2.4

Province District	Live expectancy (years)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Mean years of schooling (years)		Adjusted real per capita expenditure (thousand rupiah)		HDI		HDI Ranking		HDI reduction in shortfall
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999-2002
61. West Kalimantan	64.1	64.4	83.2	86.9	5.6	6.3	571.2	580.4	60.6	62.9	23	27	1.8
01. Sambas*	56.8	58.0	82.0	89.3	5.1	5.7	569.5	580.1	55.8	59.3	271	313	2.0
02. Bengkayang		67.1		83.5		5.9		577.8		63.1		266	
03. Landak		63.3		87.0		6.5		570.1		61.6		295	
04. Pontianak*	64.6	66.1	83.4	87.4	5.6	6.2	570.1	583.6	60.9	64.0	239	240	2.0
05. Sanggau	66.5	66.3	81.8	83.9	5.1	5.7	567.6	572.4	61.0	62.2	234	286	1.5
06. Ketapang	64.9	65.2	84.0	89.4	5.1	5.7	569.6	581.9	60.8	63.6	243	257	1.9
07. Sintang	66.0	66.6	79.6	82.8	4.9	5.4	569.4	569.6	60.3	61.6	250	294	1.5
08. Kapuas Hulu	64.5	65.3	82.8	85.1	5.8	6.1	570.1	579.6	60.8	62.7	242	276	1.7
71. Pontianak	65.1	65.2	88.9	91.7	7.9	9.2	578.6	594.4	64.7	67.6	133	126	2.0
62. Central Kalimantan	69.2	69.4	94.8	96.4	7.1	7.6	565.4	585.8	66.7	69.1	7	6	1.9
01. West Kotawaringin	69.4	70.3	93.1	94.2	6.7	7.5	577.6	588.7	67.1	69.3	71	79	1.9
02. East Kotawaringin	67.9	68.0	93.4	96.4	6.8	7.0	563.7	585.1	65.3	67.8	111	110	1.9
03. Kapuas	69.6	69.7	95.0	96.1	6.6	7.4	571.5	584.7	67.1	69.0	73	85	1.8
04. South Barito	66.1	66.7	96.7	96.9	7.1	7.6	571.9	586.1	65.9	67.8	97	119	1.8
05. North Barito	70.3	71.2	95.4	97.0	6.7	7.1	569.2	582.8	67.4	69.6	65	69	1.9
71. Palangka Raya	72.1	72.9	98.1	98.8	9.8	10.5	582.2	591.4	72.3	74.2	6	9	1.9
63. South Kalimantan	61.0	61.3	92.8	93.3	6.6	7.0	576.7	596.2	62.2	64.3	21	23	1.8
01. Tanah Laut	66.2	66.5	85.8	91.7	5.4	6.1	574.8	593.1	62.5	65.9	201	169	2.1
02. Kota Baru	61.6	62.8	91.3	91.4	6.1	6.3	576.2	609.3	61.8	65.2	220	197	2.1
03. Banjar*	62.3	62.3	95.5	92.6	7.0	6.7	575.4	594.9	63.7	64.3	161	229	1.2
04. Barito Kuala	57.8	58.0	90.9	91.5	5.3	6.2	576.1	592.1	59.0	61.2	260	304	1.7
05. Tapin	64.7	64.9	93.1	92.6	6.0	6.6	574.3	612.1	63.9	67.0	158	142	2.1
06. South Hulu Sungai	60.9	61.3	92.0	93.4	5.9	6.6	583.3	604.5	61.9	64.6	215	219	1.9
07. Central Hulu Sungai	61.9	62.2	91.0	94.9	5.9	7.0	575.3	590.2	61.7	64.7	224	218	2.0
08. North Hulu Sungai	58.8	59.0	93.2	93.2	6.0	6.0	576.2	589.3	60.6	61.7	247	293	1.4
09. Tabalong	61.0	61.2	91.7	92.7	6.4	6.7	576.7	588.7	61.8	63.3	218	263	1.6
71. Banjarmasin	64.5	64.8	96.2	95.3	8.5	8.8	587.3	611.2	67.1	69.2	72	84	1.8
72. Banjar Baru		66.4		97.9		10.0		614.3		71.8		41	
64. East Kalimantan	69.0	69.4	93.5	95.2	7.8	8.5	578.1	591.6	67.8	69.9	3	4	1.9
01. Pasir	70.5	71.3	86.9	89.4	5.5	6.8	568.6	584.1	64.7	67.9	129	107	2.1
02. West Kutai		69.1		93.2		7.3		583.8		67.8		111	
03. Kutai*	66.0	66.2	93.6	95.7	7.4	7.7	578.2	592.5	65.8	67.8	101	114	1.8
04. East Kutai		67.1		94.5		7.4		571.6		66.1		164	
05. Berau	67.6	68.4	90.3	94.0	6.7	7.5	571.4	582.0	65.0	67.7	125	122	2.0
06. Malinau		67.2		89.3		6.0		565.5		63.6		258	
07. Bulongan*	71.2	71.9	91.7	93.3	7.0	7.0	580.9	587.8	68.2	69.5	54	72	1.6
08. Nunukan		69.7		92.2		7.1		584.0		67.8		113	
71. Balikpapan	70.1	70.8	95.5	96.3	8.9	10.0	590.9	604.2	70.6	73.0	21	21	2.0
72. Samarinda	68.6	69.1	96.1	97.4	9.0	9.6	579.0	610.9	69.1	72.6	34	32	2.2
73. Tarakan		70.9		98.9		9.5		589.3		72.2		35	
74. Bontang		71.4		98.3		10.0		587.6		72.6		33	
71. North Sulawesi	68.1	70.9	97.2	98.8	7.6	8.6	578.3	587.9	67.1	71.3	6	2	2.3
01. Bolaang Mongondow	69.8	70.0	96.2	97.6	6.7	7.1	574.0	577.5	66.9	68.7	75	88	1.7
02. Minahasa	70.4	71.4	99.0	99.4	7.7	8.5	583.9	591.3	69.3	72.0	32	38	2.1
03. Sangihe Talaud	71.0	71.8	95.4	97.7	7.2	7.4	576.7	579.3	68.0	70.1	57	68	1.9
71. Manado	70.7	71.5	99.7	99.8	10.2	10.9	587.3	595.5	72.5	74.2	5	8	1.8
72. Bitung	67.6	69.5	97.8	98.3	8.0	9.0	580.6	586.7	67.6	70.7	63	59	2.1

Province District	Live expectancy (years)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Mean years of schooling (years)		Adjusted real per capita expenditure (thousand rupiah)		HDI		HDI Ranking		HDI reduction in shortfall
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999-2002
72. Central Sulawesi	62.7	63.3	92.6	93.3	7.0	7.3	569.0	580.2	62.8	64.4	20	22	1.6
01. Banggai Kepulauan		60.0		92.2		6.6		567.7		60.8		308	-1.6
02. Banggai*	63.5	67.1	91.4	91.4	6.4	7.1	566.7	579.5	62.4	65.9	204	172	4.0
03. Morowali		63.7		95.2		7.3		579.0		64.9		208	
04. Poso*	61.3	61.5	96.2	96.8	7.4	7.6	562.0	578.5	62.6	64.3	198	231	1.6
05. Donggala	60.2	61.8	89.4	90.4	6.2	6.6	567.6	580.3	60.0	62.4	253	283	1.8
06. Toli-Toli		61.5		95.4		7.1		585.8		64.2		237	
Buol Toli-toli	62.0		92.0		6.4		566.2		61.6		225		
07. Buol		62.5		96.4		7.1		566.6		63.4		261	
71. Kodya Palu	66.4	67.0	98.2	98.1	9.9	10.4	577.3	588.9	68.9	70.5	40	64	1.7
73. South Sulawesi	68.3	68.6	83.2	83.5	6.5	6.8	571.0	586.7	63.6	65.3	17	21	1.7
01. Selayar	66.2	66.5	84.3	85.9	5.6	5.9	572.2	584.0	62.1	63.8	211	249	1.7
02. Bulukumba	68.4	68.6	79.6	80.1	6.2	5.9	574.3	583.1	62.9	63.6	188	259	1.2
03. Bantaeng	70.8	71.5	70.5	70.8	4.6	5.4	572.6	582.1	60.9	62.6	238	278	1.6
04. Jeneponto	63.9	64.2	68.8	66.0	4.9	5.0	573.0	588.6	56.9	57.8	267	324	1.3
05. Takalar	66.7	66.9	76.8	78.8	5.4	5.7	574.2	585.0	60.7	62.3	244	284	1.6
06. Gowa	69.9	70.5	76.9	75.7	5.9	6.3	571.2	584.4	62.7	64.1	195	239	1.5
07. Sinjai	69.5	69.9	78.5	81.8	5.4	5.9	571.8	578.0	62.5	64.3	199	230	1.7
08. Maros	68.6	69.5	76.8	79.3	5.3	5.8	571.5	585.8	61.5	64.0	229	241	1.9
09. Pangkajene Kepulauan	67.1	67.3	82.6	80.9	5.8	6.0	576.3	592.2	62.7	63.8	197	250	1.4
10. Barru	66.7	67.1	83.8	86.5	6.2	6.9	577.3	593.9	63.1	65.7	180	177	1.9
11. Bone	67.2	67.4	81.0	81.3	5.8	5.8	568.2	582.1	61.8	63.0	222	271	1.5
12. Soppeng	70.6	71.0	78.2	88.0	5.6	6.9	581.9	591.9	61.0	68.1	151	103	2.6
13. Wajo	67.2	67.1	76.1	82.5	5.0	5.4	578.7	580.5	60.9	62.7	236	277	1.7
14. Sidenreng Rappang	69.5	69.6	82.8	84.6	5.9	6.7	571.2	586.7	63.8	66.0	160	167	1.8
15. Pinrang	68.5	69.1	82.7	86.1	6.0	6.2	574.2	590.1	63.5	66.0	170	168	1.9
16. Enrekang	72.0	72.7	89.7	85.0	6.4	6.8	572.8	579.8	67.2	67.3	68	133	0.7
17. Luwu*	71.4	71.7	92.0	88.3	7.1	7.2	574.6	582.8	68.0	68.1	56	104	0.6
18. Tana Toraja	72.8	73.5	73.3	82.9	5.7	7.2	573.0	573.1	63.5	67.2	172	139	2.2
19. Polewali Mamasa	62.9	63.1	80.9	80.4	5.2	5.6	574.5	573.6	59.4	59.6	259	311	0.8
20. Majene	62.3	62.3	89.5	92.2	6.7	7.1	573.8	587.2	62.1	64.0	212	243	1.7
21. Mamuju	67.0	67.1	84.2	83.4	5.6	5.9	574.3	574.4	62.7	62.8	194	273	0.7
22. North Luwu		69.9		91.3		7.2		584.1		67.9		108	
71. Ujung Pandang	71.4	71.9	95.2	94.7	9.9	10.3	582.3	608.9	71.4	73.9	13	12	2.1
72. Pare Pare	71.8	72.6	94.2	94.5	8.4	9.2	575.5	594.2	69.7	72.3	28	34	2.0
74. South East Sulawesi	65.0	65.1	87.1	88.2	6.8	7.3	571.8	577.9	62.9	64.1	19	26	1.5
01. Buton	66.1	66.3	85.2	84.2	6.6	6.2	565.4	575.7	62.5	62.8	202	274	1.0
02. Muna	64.0	64.4	83.2	81.9	6.0	6.4	556.9	572.3	59.8	61.2	255	305	1.5
03. Kendari	65.2	65.6	86.9	92.6	6.3	7.5	570.3	571.4	62.5	65.0	200	206	1.9
04. Kolaka	64.7	65.0	87.3	91.1	6.7	7.5	563.5	584.0	62.1	65.3	209	195	2.0
71. Kendari	65.2	67.7	97.1	96.8	9.9	10.6	581.8	586.4	68.3	70.5	50	62	1.9
75. Gorontalo		64.2		95.2		6.5		573.3		64.1		24	4.0
01. Boalemo		66.1		94.0		5.8		565.7		63.9		246	
02. Gorontalo*	65.0	65.9	94.3	94.6	6.0	6.0	573.8	574.0	63.3	64.7	175	215	1.6
71. Gorontalo	64.4	64.7	98.9	98.9	8.7	8.8	583.6	584.5	66.7	67.8	78	112	1.5
81. Maluku*	67.4	65.5	95.8	96.3	7.6	8.0	576.9	576.3	67.2	66.5	5	12	-1.3
01. West South-East Maluku		60.7		98.4		7.5		565.2		63.1		269	
02. South-East Maluku*	63.8	66.7	96.3	98.0	6.7	7.8	578.0	576.4	64.7	67.3	132	131	2.0
03. Central Maluku*	65.8	64.2	96.8	97.4	7.1	7.6	578.1	567.7	66.2	65.1	89	200	-1.5
04. Buru		65.5		84.6		6.2		584.2		63.1		265	
71. Ambon	71.4	72.0	99.9	98.9	10.6	10.3	582.8	580.6	73.0	72.7	3	29	-1.0

Province District	Live expectancy (years)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Mean years of schooling (years)		Adjusted real per capita expenditure (thousand rupiah)		HDI		HDI Ranking		HDI reduction in shortfall
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999-2002
82. North Maluku	63.0		95.8		8.4		583.4		65.8		19		4.0
01. North Maluku*	65.6	62.7	93.6	95.6	7.3	7.2	577.1	570.4	65.5	63.8	105	252	-1.7
02. Central Halmahera	71.4	63.4	90.3	94.7	6.1	7.7	579.5	585.8	67.3	65.4	67	191	-1.8
71. Ternate	67.5		97.6		10.1		600.9		71.4		47		
91. Papua	64.5	65.2	71.2	74.4	5.6	6.0	579.9	578.2	58.8	60.1	25	29	1.5
01. Merauke	58.0	59.2	79.1	84.4	5.2	6.1	583.3	565.3	57.0	58.1	265	321	1.4
02. Jayawijaya	64.4	64.7	36.0	32.0	2.6	2.2	579.5	570.2	48.7	47.0	291	341	-1.5
03. Jayapura	65.6	65.7	90.3	88.8	7.8	6.7	583.4	589.3	65.6	65.0	104	205	-1.2
04. Nabire	66.1		75.5		5.0		499.1		54.1		337		
05. Paniai*	66.0	66.3	49.8	62.7	3.6	6.1	451.7	575.2	43.6	58.0	294	323	2.9
06. Puncak Jaya	66.3		86.6		6.0		615.1		66.3		163		
07. Fak Fak*	68.0	68.7	94.9	86.4	7.5	6.4	578.0	568.9	67.3	64.3	66	228	-2.1
08. Mimika	68.2		84.2		6.2		587.3		64.8		212		
09. Sorong	64.1	64.8	88.2	87.3	6.9	8.0	587.2	548.8	63.9	62.0	157	290	-1.7
10. Manokwari	66.1	66.3	74.1	62.5	5.3	5.8	579.8	578.9	60.1	58.0	252	322	-1.7
11. Yapen Waropen	62.8	63.1	85.5	65.9	5.4	5.9	578.5	576.9	60.8	56.9	241	330	-2.2
12. Biak Numfor	64.1	64.4	94.6	90.2	7.6	7.8	588.9	582.0	66.0	64.8	92	210	-1.5
71. Jayapura	66.7	67.0	96.8	94.9	9.8	10.4	590.3	609.5	69.7	71.4	30	48	1.8
72. Sorong	68.5		98.6		10.1		613.1		73.0		22		
Indonesia	66.2	66.2	88.4	89.5	6.7	7.1	578.8	591.2	64.3	65.8			1.6

Notes:

1. Nangroe Aceh Darussalam, Maluku, North Maluku and Papua use 2003 data (adult literacy, mean years of schooling)

2. The number before each province or district is the official area code. District refers to both regency (kabupaten) and city (kota). Where two districts have the same name, the one with a code number above 70 is a city.

* This province or district lost part of its area between 1999 and 2002. For a list of boundary changes, see page 95.

Source: BPS special tabulation

7 Gender-related Development Index (GDI) by district, 1999

Province District	Life expectancy (years)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Mean years of schooling (years)		Women in the labour force (%)	GDI
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male		
11. D. I. Aceh	69.6	65.6	90.1	96.2	6.8	7.7	38.4	59.0
01. South Aceh	65.8	62.0	87.3	95.2	5.7	6.9	32.2	51.7
02. South East Aceh	69.8	65.8	85.7	96.0	6.2	7.8	45.2	63.0
03. East Aceh	69.3	65.3	92.3	95.5	6.6	7.3	30.6	56.7
04. Central Aceh	68.6	64.7	95.4	99.0	7.4	8.3	41.1	58.0
05. West Aceh	70.1	66.1	86.8	95.7	5.6	6.8	38.7	56.2
06. Aceh Besar	71.2	67.2	91.2	97.5	7.4	8.5	36.6	62.6
07. Pidie	69.5	65.6	83.7	92.2	6.0	7.5	45.2	57.2
08. North Aceh	70.4	66.5	91.7	97.6	7.1	7.5	41.6	58.8
71. Banda Aceh	70.2	66.3	96.8	98.7	10.0	10.5	31.7	57.5
72. Sabang	70.5	66.6	92.6	97.0	8.0	8.7	35.7	56.0
12. North Sumatera	69.1	65.1	93.6	98.0	7.5	8.5	41.0	61.2
01. Nias	68.4	64.5	81.6	89.8	5.0	6.4	46.1	49.8
02. South Tapanuli	66.3	62.5	98.7	99.9	7.4	8.1	48.7	64.8
03. Central Tapanuli	67.4	63.5	89.8	97.9	6.4	7.5	45.1	60.9
04. North Tapanuli	67.1	63.2	93.7	98.8	7.6	8.9	49.9	65.9
05. Labuhan Batu	67.4	63.6	94.4	98.5	6.7	7.8	32.0	46.8
06. Asahan	68.9	64.9	90.8	96.7	6.3	7.5	37.2	57.4
07. Simalungun	69.2	65.2	89.9	97.5	6.6	7.7	44.5	63.1
08. Dairi	67.3	63.5	94.6	99.1	6.9	8.4	50.7	61.3
09. Karo	72.7	68.7	92.8	98.5	7.3	8.6	49.7	69.0
10. Deli Serdang	67.9	64.0	90.5	97.7	7.1	8.3	38.7	58.4
11. Langkat	68.7	64.8	95.6	98.7	7.3	8.1	35.0	55.1
71. Sibolga	70.4	66.4	97.5	99.5	8.5	9.1	35.4	60.4
72. Tanjung Balai	68.9	64.9	95.2	98.9	7.4	8.2	29.3	49.5
73. Pematang Siantar	72.2	68.2	97.4	99.3	9.0	9.9	34.9	59.4
74. Tebing Tinggi	71.5	67.5	96.8	98.8	8.6	9.3	29.5	58.8
75. Medan	71.2	67.2	98.1	99.5	9.5	10.3	35.8	60.7
76. Binjai	71.1	67.1	95.7	99.0	8.5	9.3	35.1	61.0
13. West Sumatera	67.4	63.5	92.6	97.0	7.2	7.7	40.3	60.7
01. Pesisir Selatan	66.2	62.3	89.8	97.3	6.6	7.3	34.3	57.5
02. Solok	62.0	58.3	93.0	96.4	6.0	6.3	41.7	58.6
03. Sawah Lunto/Sijunjung	62.1	58.5	88.4	94.9	6.6	7.3	41.0	59.3
04. Tanah Datar	69.1	65.2	90.9	95.8	6.9	7.2	40.3	60.3
05. Padang Pariaman	66.3	62.5	90.9	96.6	6.1	7.0	42.5	58.2
06. Agam	69.1	65.2	92.1	96.8	6.7	7.2	43.9	62.8
07. Limapuluh Koto	66.6	62.8	93.6	96.1	6.7	6.9	43.0	60.5
08. Pasaman	62.8	59.2	91.0	96.9	6.2	7.0	42.5	60.5
71. Padang	70.8	66.8	96.2	98.2	9.5	9.7	34.8	61.8
72. Solok	68.2	64.3	96.6	98.5	8.7	8.7	35.7	60.8
73. Sawah Lunto	72.1	68.2	95.7	99.3	7.7	8.0	35.9	59.4
74. Padang Panjang	71.2	67.3	96.5	98.6	9.4	9.7	42.7	67.3
75. Bukit Tinggi	71.8	67.9	97.8	99.7	9.5	9.9	39.9	62.7
76. Payakumbuh	68.7	64.8	96.0	98.3	8.3	8.5	40.6	62.1

Province District	Life expectancy (years)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Mean years of schooling (years)		Women in the labour force (%)	GDI
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male		
14. Riau	69.8	65.8	93.7	97.4	6.9	7.8	30.1	53.1
01. Indragiri Hulu	66.6	62.8	89.8	95.8	6.1	7.3	35.0	57.4
02. Indragiri Ilir	70.0	66.0	95.9	97.9	5.9	6.5	27.9	47.9
03. Kepulauan Riau	70.3	66.4	87.6	94.4	6.2	6.9	27.5	46.5
04. Kampar	67.6	63.7	93.5	97.8	5.8	6.8	34.8	54.4
05. Bengkalis	70.7	66.7	93.8	97.2	6.6	7.4	27.0	44.8
71. Pekanbaru	72.2	68.3	98.9	100.0	9.7	10.4	28.5	54.9
72. Batam	71.4	67.4	94.5	98.3	8.6	9.5	31.9	57.9
15. Jambi	68.6	64.7	90.5	96.9	6.1	7.4	31.6	54.6
01. Kerinci	70.2	66.2	93.4	96.4	7.2	8.1	37.9	55.9
02. Bungo Tebo	65.4	61.6	88.6	96.3	5.6	7.2	30.6	55.8
03. Sarolangun Bangko	68.1	64.2	88.6	97.1	5.4	7.1	36.0	58.0
04. Batanghari	67.7	63.8	92.1	98.2	5.2	6.7	32.8	53.3
05. Tanjung Jabung	69.7	65.8	87.9	95.8	5.3	6.4	22.8	44.8
71. Jambi	70.4	66.4	93.0	97.7	8.0	9.0	29.4	55.6
16. South Sumatera	67.4	63.5	90.3	96.5	6.2	7.1	36.7	52.4
01. Ogan Komering Ulu	69.7	65.8	87.8	95.1	5.7	6.7	36.4	59.2
02. Ogan Komering Hilir	64.3	60.5	90.0	96.8	5.0	6.0	33.1	49.9
03. Muara Enim (Liot)	65.7	61.9	92.5	98.3	6.0	7.0	38.7	47.6
04. Lahat	65.2	61.4	93.4	98.8	6.4	7.3	39.3	55.0
05. Musi Rawas	63.1	59.4	87.9	94.6	5.7	6.7	38.6	51.6
06. Musi Banyuasin	68.6	64.7	90.7	95.9	5.1	5.9	39.6	46.7
07. Bangka	68.3	64.4	82.1	93.0	5.4	6.5	32.1	47.4
08. Balitung	68.9	65.0	90.0	97.1	6.2	7.1	26.8	45.7
71. Palembang	69.7	65.8	94.0	98.0	8.1	9.3	36.7	55.9
72. Pangkal Pinang	70.3	66.4	89.7	97.4	7.3	8.5	32.5	53.2
17. Bengkulu	67.1	63.3	89.4	95.9	6.5	7.5	39.5	59.4
01. South Bengkulu	65.7	61.9	85.3	95.5	5.5	6.8	41.6	59.4
02. Rejang Lebong	64.0	60.2	89.0	95.9	6.0	7.0	41.4	58.7
03. North Bengkulu	67.5	63.6	86.8	93.7	5.3	6.3	37.8	59.5
71. Bengkulu	71.4	67.4	97.3	99.3	9.7	10.6	37.0	63.0
18. Lampung	67.9	64.0	88.3	95.1	5.9	6.8	36.9	57.0
01. South Lampung	67.0	63.1	88.3	95.0	5.5	6.6	35.8	55.4
02. Central Lampung	68.7	64.8	84.4	93.9	5.7	6.6	37.2	58.0
03. North Lampung	67.0	63.1	89.6	94.7	5.3	6.0	37.9	55.7
04. West Lampung	67.0	63.1	90.4	94.2	5.4	6.5	37.1	55.6
71. Bandar Lampung	69.7	65.7	93.7	98.8	8.2	9.1	36.5	60.0
31. DKI Jakarta	73.2	69.3	96.8	98.9	9.0	10.4	34.6	61.2
71. South Jakarta	73.1	69.2	96.6	98.9	9.4	10.7	35.7	64.7
72. East Jakarta	73.6	69.7	97.8	99.0	9.5	10.7	30.8	60.3
73. Central Jakarta	72.2	68.3	96.2	99.2	9.0	10.4	38.6	61.9
74. West Jakarta	73.5	69.6	96.8	98.8	8.7	10.2	35.5	60.9
75. North Jakarta	73.3	69.4	95.6	98.7	8.5	10.0	35.2	59.1

Province District	Life expectancy (years)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Mean years of schooling (years)		Women in the labour force (%)	GDI
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male		
32. West Java	66.2	62.4	89.2	95.2	6.2	7.3	32.4	54.6
01. Pandeglang	63.4	59.7	90.9	95.6	4.8	5.8	33.9	52.9
02. Lebak	63.8	60.1	87.9	93.6	4.9	6.2	24.6	49.5
03. Bogor	67.1	63.2	91.8	95.8	7.5	8.5	30.6	55.7
04. Sukabumi	64.3	60.5	94.9	97.2	5.3	6.0	31.0	47.4
05. Cianjur	65.5	61.7	93.2	98.1	5.2	6.2	34.1	53.9
06. Bandung	68.5	64.6	93.1	96.4	6.6	7.4	30.8	55.9
07. Garut	61.2	57.6	95.8	98.2	5.7	6.7	35.5	54.1
08. Tasikmalaya	67.4	63.6	95.0	97.5	6.0	6.6	39.3	54.5
09. Ciamis	65.8	62.0	91.7	97.1	6.0	6.8	37.6	62.0
10. Kuningan	66.8	62.9	87.6	96.1	5.6	6.7	34.4	53.0
11. Cirebon	64.8	61.1	81.5	91.9	5.0	6.4	33.6	49.3
12. Majalengka	64.8	61.1	85.1	93.0	5.5	6.4	36.5	48.5
13. Sumedang	68.4	64.5	93.6	97.7	6.4	7.2	33.0	58.5
14. Indramayu	65.1	61.3	55.2	78.6	3.1	4.7	34.3	40.2
15. Subang	66.9	63.1	80.6	91.9	4.7	6.0	33.8	55.7
16. Purwakarta	65.3	61.5	91.9	97.1	5.7	6.7	34.9	57.1
17. Karawang	64.3	60.5	80.1	89.3	4.7	6.0	27.1	46.1
18. Bekasi	68.5	64.6	82.4	92.6	6.2	7.4	18.6	42.6
19. Tangerang	65.6	61.9	83.9	93.6	6.0	7.3	30.7	50.4
20. Serang	61.4	57.8	88.5	96.3	5.2	6.5	32.4	49.3
71. Bogor	69.7	65.7	96.4	98.4	8.7	9.8	28.6	60.6
72. Sukabumi	67.6	63.7	97.1	98.2	8.1	9.1	34.8	56.4
73. Bandung	70.2	66.2	97.2	99.5	9.0	10.3	35.5	62.4
74. Cirebon	69.1	65.1	92.1	97.6	7.7	9.2	35.9	55.7
75. Tangerang	69.0	65.1	91.7	96.9	8.1	9.5	32.8	56.9
76. Bekasi	68.5	64.6	95.7	98.8	8.7	10.1	27.2	55.4
33. Central Java	70.3	66.3	78.4	91.4	5.4	6.7	40.8	57.4
01. Cilacap	69.1	65.2	77.2	91.1	4.7	6.1	37.1	50.3
02. Banyumas	70.1	66.1	86.6	95.8	5.8	7.0	37.9	57.4
03. Purbalingga	69.4	65.4	81.2	91.1	4.9	5.8	38.3	46.7
04. Banjarnegara	69.4	65.4	81.5	90.3	5.2	6.1	37.9	59.4
05. Kebumen	69.1	65.2	82.0	92.5	5.2	6.5	40.0	55.2
06. Purworejo	69.6	65.7	81.3	91.5	5.7	6.9	40.2	58.2
07. Wonosobo	69.6	65.7	80.8	92.1	5.0	5.8	36.9	57.9
08. Magelang	69.9	66.0	80.6	92.3	5.7	7.0	44.6	60.5
09. Boyolali	71.4	67.4	74.3	88.9	5.4	7.0	45.8	61.9
10. Klaten	71.1	67.2	72.3	90.8	5.8	7.7	46.0	61.4
11. Sukoharjo	71.1	67.2	77.6	91.0	6.6	8.2	42.6	61.8
12. Wonogiri	73.2	69.2	68.3	85.0	4.8	6.4	40.4	58.5
13. Karanganyar	73.2	69.3	70.7	87.0	5.4	6.9	45.6	58.3
14. Sragen	72.8	68.9	62.5	81.4	4.5	6.2	42.4	55.2
15. Grobogan	69.8	65.8	78.0	93.4	4.9	6.3	39.7	58.1
16. Blora	72.0	68.0	66.9	81.5	4.2	5.3	39.9	55.3
17. Rembang	69.9	66.0	78.6	91.5	5.4	6.5	40.9	55.9
18. Pati	73.7	69.8	72.1	88.9	5.0	6.3	41.5	56.8
19. Kudus	69.8	65.8	83.7	94.2	6.3	7.5	45.5	60.3
20. Jepara	71.7	67.7	76.0	90.5	5.3	6.6	39.6	53.4
21. Demak	70.7	66.8	83.1	95.1	5.3	6.9	40.7	60.4
22. Semarang	72.7	68.7	83.9	95.2	5.9	7.3	43.7	61.1
23. Temanggung	72.7	68.8	87.5	94.6	5.3	6.0	40.0	65.5
24. Kendal	66.6	62.7	77.2	91.6	4.8	6.0	39.2	57.3
25. Batang	70.1	66.1	79.8	91.9	4.6	5.5	38.7	52.1
26. Pekalongan	68.4	64.5	76.6	92.4	4.7	6.0	39.1	52.3
27. Pemalang	66.4	62.6	74.1	90.9	4.6	5.9	38.0	53.7
28. Tegal	67.1	63.2	78.0	89.3	5.1	6.1	37.5	50.2

Province District	Life expectancy (years)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Mean years of schooling (years)		Women in the labour force (%)	GDI
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male		
29. Brebes	65.1	61.4	75.9	90.3	4.2	5.5	40.4	49.7
71. Magelang	71.1	67.1	89.0	98.1	8.2	9.8	42.4	64.2
72. Surakarta	73.0	69.1	89.3	96.8	8.1	9.7	45.0	66.5
73. Salatiga	71.5	67.6	92.8	98.9	8.5	10.0	45.7	69.8
74. Semarang	72.2	68.3	90.3	97.2	8.0	9.4	43.6	64.6
75. Pekalongan	70.1	66.1	84.8	95.0	6.5	7.6	38.0	57.4
76. Tegal	68.5	64.6	80.4	92.8	5.9	7.3	39.8	54.3
34. D. I. Yogyakarta	72.9	69.0	78.3	93.0	7.1	8.8	45.6	66.4
01. Kulon Progo	73.4	69.5	75.5	90.4	6.1	7.6	42.5	64.6
02. Bantul	71.5	67.5	74.2	91.2	5.8	7.8	45.2	62.1
03. Gunung Kidul	72.1	68.2	74.6	92.3	6.6	7.7	49.8	63.5
04. Sleman	73.7	69.8	78.4	93.0	7.5	9.5	43.6	67.4
71. Yogyakarta	74.2	70.4	91.7	98.6	9.6	11.1	46.0	69.4
35. East Java	67.4	63.5	74.5	88.6	5.3	6.7	39.1	53.2
01. Pacitan	71.8	67.9	72.5	89.7	4.7	6.0	45.0	61.5
02. Ponorogo	68.5	64.6	67.4	84.7	4.7	6.0	42.2	55.0
03. Trenggalek	71.4	67.5	82.4	92.2	5.3	6.1	43.5	63.5
04. Tulungagung	72.1	68.2	79.3	91.2	5.7	6.6	41.1	57.2
05. Blitar	70.5	66.5	76.3	88.7	5.3	6.2	36.8	57.2
06. Kediri	69.8	65.8	79.1	92.3	5.6	7.1	39.0	56.5
07. Malang	68.2	64.3	77.3	91.4	4.9	6.1	36.9	54.3
08. Lumajang	66.8	62.9	71.4	83.6	4.7	5.7	35.4	47.8
09. Jember	61.5	57.9	63.2	83.1	3.9	5.1	37.1	39.1
10. Banyuwangi	66.1	62.3	73.9	90.7	4.7	6.6	38.7	55.4
11. Bondowoso	60.5	57.0	53.9	74.6	3.6	5.2	38.9	37.6
12. Situbondo	63.1	59.4	55.1	75.0	3.7	5.1	38.6	46.6
13. Probolinggo	60.2	56.6	57.9	79.4	3.3	4.9	37.3	37.7
14. Pasuruan	63.1	59.4	76.9	89.4	4.7	6.0	39.0	51.1
15. Sidoarjo	69.9	65.9	93.2	97.8	8.2	9.4	37.7	56.7
16. Mojokerto	69.5	65.5	83.3	92.2	5.6	6.8	38.7	56.1
17. Jombang	68.6	64.7	82.9	94.4	6.3	7.8	37.5	57.2
18. Nganjuk	68.8	64.9	78.7	92.1	5.4	6.8	39.0	54.6
19. Madiun	68.8	64.9	71.6	88.4	4.8	6.3	39.2	56.4
20. Magetan	71.6	67.7	72.0	92.0	5.1	7.1	44.4	60.4
21. Ngawi	68.9	65.0	70.9	88.1	4.5	6.1	37.1	51.7
22. Bojonegoro	67.4	63.5	70.4	86.5	4.6	6.2	31.1	47.0
23. Tuban	67.7	63.9	64.4	83.2	4.2	5.5	38.9	45.5
24. Lamongan	68.4	64.5	73.2	88.2	5.0	6.3	38.8	53.9
25. Gresik	69.3	65.3	87.0	95.6	7.0	8.2	36.1	55.1
26. Bangkalan	62.6	59.0	55.9	71.5	3.1	4.5	42.8	47.3
27. Sampang	58.3	54.9	46.8	64.4	2.0	3.0	45.0	43.5
28. Pamekasan	62.9	59.2	64.5	82.1	3.8	5.5	45.3	45.4
29. Sumenep	62.6	59.0	57.5	77.7	2.9	4.6	46.6	46.4
71. Kediri	70.4	66.4	88.7	97.6	7.8	9.2	42.0	62.2
72. Blitar	71.7	67.7	87.6	97.0	7.5	8.8	38.9	60.2
73. Malang	68.1	64.2	91.6	97.4	8.0	9.2	41.3	62.0
74. Probolinggo	69.4	65.5	78.9	94.2	6.3	8.0	34.6	57.9
75. Pasuruan	66.0	62.2	82.2	94.1	6.5	7.8	36.3	52.4
76. Mojokerto	72.0	68.1	89.7	97.4	7.7	9.1	37.9	59.9
77. Madiun	71.1	67.1	87.2	96.6	7.9	9.6	43.0	60.4
78. Surabaya	70.2	66.3	90.5	97.2	8.4	9.8	37.8	59.7

Province District	Life expectancy (years)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Mean years of schooling (years)		Women in the labour force (%)	GDI
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male		
51. Bali	71.6	67.5	75.4	90.2	5.9	7.7	45.4	60.4
01. Jembrana	71.9	67.9	77.8	91.6	5.4	6.9	43.8	60.1
02. Tabanan	74.7	70.9	78.8	92.4	6.1	8.0	45.8	64.1
03. Badung	72.5	68.6	81.2	93.2	7.1	9.0	39.1	61.3
04. Gianyar	72.7	68.8	68.3	86.8	5.4	7.2	45.0	57.6
05. Klungkung	69.1	65.1	70.5	87.4	5.1	7.2	46.8	58.0
06. Bangli	72.5	68.6	71.8	85.1	4.7	6.3	47.6	62.0
07. Karangasem	68.3	64.4	54.3	78.1	3.2	5.0	48.5	54.1
08. Buleleng	67.9	64.0	74.9	92.4	5.2	7.3	47.4	53.8
71. Denpasar	73.9	69.8	90.7	96.9	9.0	10.4	44.0	65.1
52. West Nusa Tenggara	59.4	55.9	65.4	81.2	4.5	6.0	42.9	45.9
01. West Lombok	58.1	54.7	55.0	73.7	3.2	4.9	42.0	39.1
02. Central Lombok	57.7	54.3	55.2	75.6	3.4	5.4	47.3	42.4
03. East Lombok	57.7	54.3	63.5	75.1	4.4	5.3	41.7	38.8
04. Sumbawa	58.1	54.7	77.2	91.9	5.3	6.7	41.8	51.5
05. Dompu	59.6	56.1	76.7	87.7	5.5	6.5	42.3	53.8
06. Bima	60.2	56.7	75.1	89.0	5.9	7.0	42.7	52.2
71. Mataram	64.7	60.9	82.1	93.8	6.8	8.9	39.0	54.6
53. East Nusa Tenggara	65.5	61.7	77.4	83.5	5.2	5.9	43.0	56.8
01. West Sumba	63.5	59.8	64.9	73.2	4.7	5.2	42.9	42.4
02. East Sumba	60.7	57.2	72.2	82.0	5.1	5.7	40.1	50.5
03. Kupang	65.3	61.5	72.1	78.6	4.6	5.2	36.6	53.9
04. South Central Timor	67.1	63.3	64.8	70.3	3.9	4.6	32.7	39.6
05. North Central Timor	67.0	63.2	77.4	81.9	5.0	5.5	40.1	46.4
06. Belu	65.3	61.5	72.5	74.4	4.9	5.2	34.3	45.9
07. Alor	64.7	61.0	86.3	93.0	5.6	6.9	42.6	51.9
08. East Flores	67.9	64.0	78.4	87.6	5.0	6.0	50.2	56.2
09. Sikka	67.6	63.8	83.1	86.7	5.0	5.5	47.9	48.5
10. Ende	64.6	60.8	85.4	93.2	5.2	6.2	54.9	55.8
11. Ngada	66.6	62.8	90.7	94.4	6.1	6.7	48.4	62.3
12. Manggarai	65.9	62.1	78.0	88.8	4.7	5.7	48.7	59.4
71. Kupang	65.3	61.5	94.5	96.9	9.3	10.3	30.6	58.2
61. West Kalimantan	65.9	62.1	76.1	90.2	5.0	6.2	39.8	55.7
01. Sambas	58.5	55.1	74.3	89.8	4.4	5.7	44.3	52.2
02. Pontianak	66.5	62.7	75.4	91.0	4.9	6.3	37.8	55.8
03. Sanggau	68.4	64.5	74.2	89.1	4.5	5.6	39.3	58.4
04. Ketapang	66.8	63.0	77.4	90.6	4.5	5.7	36.7	56.8
05. Sintang	67.9	64.0	73.6	85.6	4.4	5.5	42.1	52.3
06. Kapuas Hulu	66.4	62.6	77.7	87.8	5.3	6.4	42.9	52.3
71. Pontianak	67.0	63.2	82.7	95.2	7.2	8.5	33.2	54.1
62. Central Kalimantan	71.2	67.3	92.8	96.9	6.6	7.5	34.9	57.9
01. West Kotawaringin	71.4	67.4	91.1	95.1	6.1	7.3	29.1	49.3
02. East Kotawaringin	69.9	65.9	90.5	96.2	6.2	7.3	28.5	52.0
03. Kapuas	71.6	67.6	92.9	97.0	6.3	6.9	39.9	57.7
04. South Barito	68.1	64.2	94.8	98.6	6.7	7.5	39.6	61.7
05. North Barito	72.3	68.4	93.8	97.7	6.3	7.1	36.9	64.4
71. Palangka Raya	74.2	70.3	97.7	98.6	9.3	10.2	33.5	65.7

Province District	Life expectancy (years)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Mean years of schooling (years)		Women in the labour force (%)	GDI
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male		
63. South Kalimantan	62.8	59.1	89.4	96.3	5.9	7.2	41.1	56.9
01. Tanah Laut	68.1	64.2	80.5	91.0	4.8	6.0	38.2	56.0
02. Kota Baru	63.4	59.7	87.9	94.5	5.3	6.9	38.1	55.2
03. Banjar	64.1	60.4	93.3	97.7	6.4	7.6	41.5	58.3
04. Barito Kuala	59.4	56.0	85.2	96.9	4.8	5.8	43.6	56.6
05. Tapin	66.6	62.7	89.2	97.1	5.4	6.7	42.5	58.5
06. South Hulu Sungai	62.7	59.0	89.3	94.9	5.4	6.4	44.0	59.5
07. Central Hulu Sungai	63.7	60.0	87.2	95.1	5.4	6.5	45.0	60.4
08. North Hulu Sungai	60.5	56.9	89.4	97.6	5.4	6.7	47.3	58.5
09. Tabalong	62.8	59.1	87.0	96.7	5.5	7.3	44.7	57.0
71. Banjarmasin	66.4	62.6	94.2	98.4	7.8	9.1	33.0	56.4
64. East Kalimantan	71.0	67.0	90.0	96.8	7.1	8.5	31.0	53.5
01. Pasir	72.6	68.7	79.4	93.4	4.8	6.2	25.5	47.2
02. Kutai	67.9	64.1	90.3	96.7	6.6	8.2	31.5	53.4
03. Berau	69.5	65.6	87.4	93.1	6.1	7.2	32.7	53.5
04. Bulongan	73.2	69.3	87.4	95.7	6.4	7.5	32.3	55.1
71. Balikpapan	72.1	68.2	92.6	98.4	8.1	9.5	28.5	51.9
72. Samarinda	70.6	66.6	93.9	98.2	8.3	9.7	34.0	58.0
71. North Sulawesi	70.0	66.1	97.3	97.2	7.5	7.6	28.5	53.9
01. Gorontalo	66.9	63.1	95.2	93.4	6.2	5.8	26.3	53.5
02. Bolaang Mongondow	71.8	67.8	95.2	97.3	6.5	6.9	24.5	52.4
03. Minahasa	72.4	68.5	99.0	99.0	7.7	7.6	28.5	58.6
04. Sangihe Talaud	73.1	69.2	95.8	95.1	7.2	7.2	33.0	64.0
71. Gorontalo	66.3	62.5	99.1	98.7	8.7	8.7	32.1	59.2
72. Manado	72.8	68.8	99.6	99.8	9.9	10.5	33.5	57.5
73. Bitung	69.6	65.6	97.6	97.9	7.8	8.3	23.4	46.9
72. Central Sulawesi	64.5	60.7	90.3	94.9	6.6	7.4	33.7	54.1
01. Luwuk Banggai	65.4	61.6	88.6	94.0	5.9	6.9	37.6	56.6
02. Poso	63.1	59.4	94.6	97.9	7.1	7.7	37.6	54.9
03. Donggala	61.9	58.3	86.1	92.5	5.8	6.6	31.5	51.2
04. Bual Toli-Toli	63.9	60.1	90.1	93.9	6.0	6.8	25.0	46.1
05. Kodya Palu	68.3	64.4	97.1	99.2	9.3	10.5	33.6	59.1
73. South Sulawesi	70.3	66.3	79.6	87.1	6.0	7.0	31.4	53.3
01. Selayar	68.1	64.2	79.5	89.8	5.1	6.1	34.4	52.2
02. Bulukumba	70.4	66.4	77.2	82.6	5.7	6.8	30.3	52.7
03. Bantaeng	72.8	68.9	67.3	74.1	4.4	4.8	33.7	52.4
04. Jeneponto	65.8	62.0	65.4	72.5	4.7	5.1	36.2	49.3
05. Takalar	68.6	64.7	73.0	81.2	5.0	5.8	31.8	53.8
06. Gowa	72.0	68.0	72.3	81.7	5.5	6.5	29.2	55.6
07. Sinjai	71.5	67.5	76.7	80.5	5.2	5.7	26.9	51.1
08. Maros	70.6	66.6	73.0	81.1	4.8	5.9	29.0	46.8
09. Pangkep	69.1	65.2	78.9	86.9	5.2	6.4	23.9	43.9
10. Barru	68.6	64.7	82.9	84.8	6.2	6.3	23.8	47.2
11. Bone	69.2	65.2	77.4	85.4	5.4	6.3	28.6	51.8
12. Soppeng	72.7	68.7	76.0	81.0	5.3	6.1	28.1	50.3
13. Wajo	69.2	65.2	72.3	80.7	4.5	5.7	30.4	41.8
14. Sidenreng Rappang	71.5	67.5	78.6	87.9	5.5	6.5	27.1	47.5
15. Pinrang	70.5	66.6	77.6	88.3	5.4	6.7	28.8	48.1
16. Enrekang	74.1	70.2	84.6	95.0	5.8	7.1	35.4	63.1
17. Luwu	73.5	69.6	89.0	95.0	6.6	7.6	31.5	56.6

Province District	Life expectancy (years)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Mean years of schooling (years)		Women in the labour force (%)	GDI
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male		
18. Tana Toraja	74.9	71.1	67.5	78.6	5.2	6.1	35.9	59.9
19. Polewali Mamasa	64.8	61.0	77.0	85.3	4.9	5.5	38.5	52.5
20. Majene	64.1	60.4	86.5	93.0	6.3	7.1	32.1	52.5
21. Mamuju	69.0	65.0	78.4	89.4	5.0	6.2	30.0	55.3
71. Ujung Pandang	73.5	69.6	92.9	97.7	9.3	10.5	33.1	61.4
72. Pare Pare	73.9	70.0	91.7	97.0	7.8	9.0	30.6	61.8
74. South East Sulawesi	66.9	63.1	82.6	91.8	6.2	7.4	36.5	57.4
01. Buton	68.1	64.2	81.1	89.9	6.0	7.2	40.5	59.2
02. Muna	65.9	62.1	76.6	90.9	5.3	6.8	43.1	56.2
03. Kendari	67.1	63.2	81.8	91.9	5.7	6.9	36.9	58.4
04. Kolaka	66.6	62.8	83.6	91.0	6.2	7.2	26.0	50.8
71. Kendari	67.1	63.2	95.5	98.8	9.3	10.6	31.8	56.9
81. Maluku	69.3	65.4	94.2	97.4	7.3	8.0	35.0	61.0
01. South East Maluku	72.2	68.3	95.4	97.3	6.4	7.0	36.1	57.9
02. Central Maluku	65.7	61.9	95.6	98.1	6.9	7.3	34.9	60.9
03. North Maluku	67.7	63.8	90.8	96.3	6.8	7.9	34.1	56.7
04. Central Halmahera	67.5	63.7	85.9	94.6	5.6	6.6	33.0	57.8
71. Ambon	73.5	69.6	100.0	99.9	10.5	10.8	38.0	69.8
82. Irian Jaya	66.4	62.6	64.8	77.3	4.8	6.4	41.4	55.7
01. Merauke	59.7	56.2	75.0	83.0	4.5	5.9	41.7	52.6
02. Jaya Wijaya	66.2	62.4	23.7	48.3	1.5	3.7	49.8	47.7
03. Jaya Pura	67.5	63.6	86.9	93.5	7.1	8.5	30.6	56.2
04. Paniai	68.0	64.1	42.2	57.4	2.9	4.2	47.4	43.4
05. Fak Fak	70.0	66.0	94.0	95.7	6.9	8.0	27.7	50.7
06. Sorong	66.0	62.2	85.0	91.4	6.1	7.6	35.8	55.8
07. Manokwari	68.1	64.2	65.2	82.4	4.4	6.2	38.1	51.1
08. Yapen Waropen	64.6	60.9	81.8	89.2	4.7	6.1	34.7	54.6
09. Biak Numfor	66.0	62.2	92.0	97.3	6.9	8.3	34.1	58.8
71. Jaya Pura	68.6	64.7	94.7	98.7	9.1	10.4	26.6	58.4

Note:

- 1 The number before each province or district is the official area code. District refers to both regency (kabupaten) and city (kota).
Where two districts have the same name, the one with a code number above 70 is a city.

Source: BPS special tabulation

8 Gender Development Index (GDI) by district, 2002

Province District	Proportion of population (%)		Life expectancy (years)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Mean years of schooling (years)		Share of earned income (%)		GDI	GDI ranking
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male		
11. Nangroe Aceh Darussalam	49.6	50.4	69.6	65.7	94.1	97.5	7.4	8.2	34.6	65.4	62.1	5
01. Simeulue	47.3	52.7	64.0	60.2	92.5	95.4	5.2	6.3	38.7	61.3	60.1	101
02. Aceh Singkil	48.8	51.2	64.5	60.7	93.0	98.0	5.8	7.0	28.5	71.5	61.8	70
03. South Aceh	50.5	49.5	66.5	62.7	92.9	97.1	6.9	7.8	34.1	65.9	60.3	96
04. South East Aceh	48.7	51.3	70.3	66.3	91.6	98.6	8.0	9.3	51.7	48.3	65.4	27
05. East Aceh	50.1	49.9	69.8	65.9	95.0	98.0	7.2	8.0	32.9	67.1	62.5	60
06. Central Aceh	48.6	51.4	69.0	65.1	94.8	98.3	8.2	8.7	51.6	48.4	64.6	37
07. West Aceh	50.1	49.9	70.3	66.3	91.8	97.3	6.9	8.2	31.6	68.4	60.2	99
08. Aceh Besar	49.5	50.5	71.4	67.5	93.0	95.9	8.0	8.6	37.5	62.5	65.0	30
09. Pidie	49.9	50.1	69.6	65.7	94.7	98.3	7.6	9.0	41.7	58.3	66.3	22
10. Bireuen	50.4	49.6	74.5	70.7	96.4	97.5	8.9	9.0	39.9	60.1	68.3	11
11. North Aceh	48.0	52.0	70.9	66.9	96.8	99.0	8.4	9.3	20.3	79.7	53.8	221
71. Banda Aceh	52.6	47.4	70.5	66.5	98.5	99.4	10.9	11.4	42.0	58.0	69.7	5
72. Sabang	50.3	49.7	70.7	66.8	93.7	99.4	8.8	9.4	26.6	73.4	60.5	93
12. North Sumatera	49.5	50.5	69.2	65.3	94.3	97.9	8.0	8.9	29.7	70.3	61.5	6
01. Nias	48.4	51.6	68.7	64.8	76.0	89.7	4.8	6.5	49.9	50.1	61.6	79
02. Mandailing Natal	50.5	49.5	63.8	60.1	95.3	97.7	6.5	7.1	33.3	66.7	58.4	133
03. South Tapanuli	49.7	50.3	67.1	63.3	98.9	100.0	8.3	9.0	47.4	52.6	68.2	13
04. Central Tapanuli	50.6	49.4	67.4	63.6	92.4	97.1	7.2	8.1	30.0	70.0	58.4	135
05. North Tapanuli	50.8	49.2	67.3	63.4	95.6	99.0	7.6	9.0	35.1	64.9	62.9	55
06. Toba Samosir	48.9	51.1	68.8	64.9	93.2	99.2	8.4	9.9	52.0	48.0	69.3	6
07. Labuhan Batu	49.6	50.4	67.8	63.9	94.3	97.8	7.1	8.0	19.3	80.7	50.5	270
08. Asahan	49.2	50.8	69.1	65.2	91.3	96.9	6.4	7.3	15.5	84.5	45.9	309
09. Simalungun	49.3	50.7	69.3	65.3	94.9	98.0	7.6	8.4	30.1	69.9	61.5	80
10. Dairi	50.7	49.3	67.8	63.9	95.0	98.6	7.5	8.4	44.8	55.2	66.5	19
11. Karo	51.2	48.8	72.9	69.0	96.0	99.4	8.3	9.1	39.9	60.1	68.5	10
12. Deli Serdang	49.1	50.9	68.2	64.3	93.2	97.1	7.9	8.7	27.6	72.4	59.7	112
13. Langkat	49.0	51.0	69.0	65.1	95.9	98.8	7.8	8.5	25.3	74.7	57.9	140
71. Sibolga	49.3	50.7	70.6	66.6	98.7	99.5	9.4	9.9	22.2	77.8	57.3	152
72. Tanjung Balai	50.9	49.1	69.1	65.2	94.1	98.6	8.1	8.7	24.6	75.4	55.7	180
73. Pematang Siantar	50.2	49.8	72.8	68.9	98.2	99.3	9.9	10.7	36.2	63.8	70.4	3
74. Tebing Tinggi	51.0	49.0	71.9	68.0	96.8	98.4	8.7	9.6	22.7	77.3	57.1	156
75. Medan	49.6	50.4	71.3	67.4	98.7	99.5	10.2	10.8	26.5	73.5	63.4	50
76. Binjai	50.9	49.1	71.3	67.4	96.4	98.9	9.2	10.0	30.4	69.6	63.9	44
13. West Sumatera	51.1	48.9	68.0	64.1	93.6	96.8	7.7	8.2	31.6	68.4	60.7	9
01. Kepulauan Mentawai	47.6	52.4	69.0	65.1	88.7	92.8	5.4	6.2	17.3	82.7	46.9	302
02. Pesisir Selatan	48.9	51.1	66.6	62.8	91.6	96.2	7.1	7.8	30.8	69.2	59.9	108
03. Solok	51.1	48.9	63.3	59.7	94.8	96.8	6.7	6.9	39.9	60.1	61.4	82
04. Sawah Lunto/Sijunjung	49.6	50.4	64.0	60.2	82.7	91.8	5.8	6.5	47.9	52.1	57.9	139
05. Tanah Datar	53.4	46.6	69.3	65.3	94.4	96.8	7.6	8.0	31.8	68.2	60.1	103
06. Padang Pariaman	52.1	47.9	66.8	63.0	91.2	95.8	6.4	7.2	29.9	70.1	57.1	157
07. Agam	52.6	47.4	69.3	65.3	93.9	97.4	7.4	8.3	18.1	81.9	54.0	215
08. Limapuluh Koto	50.5	49.5	67.2	63.4	96.8	98.2	7.1	7.5	33.6	66.4	61.6	78
09. Pasaman	50.7	49.3	63.9	60.2	92.3	96.6	6.9	7.5	31.8	68.2	57.9	142
71. Padang	51.3	48.7	70.7	66.8	97.5	98.9	10.5	11.0	33.0	67.0	67.0	18
72. Solok	53.0	47.0	68.5	64.6	96.2	98.4	9.6	9.7	27.1	72.9	58.9	126
73. Sawah Lunto	51.9	48.1	72.5	68.5	95.7	97.7	8.4	8.7	19.5	80.5	52.5	235
74. Padang Panjang	52.2	47.8	71.5	67.5	97.4	99.8	10.1	10.4	28.0	72.0	62.8	56
75. Bukit Tinggi	51.2	48.8	72.1	68.1	97.0	99.2	10.0	10.3	29.6	70.4	65.0	31
76. Payakumbuh	50.9	49.1	69.0	65.1	95.3	97.4	8.9	9.2	30.9	69.1	62.0	68

Province District	Proportion of population (%)		Life expectancy (years)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Mean years of schooling (years)		Share of earned income (%)		GDI	GDI ranking
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male		
14. Riau	49.6	50.4	70.0	66.0	95.5	97.4	8.0	8.6	23.7	76.3	56.9	16
01. Kuantan Sengingi	48.8	51.2	67.1	63.2	98.0	98.0	7.2	8.1	25.6	74.4	56.8	164
02. Indragiri Hulu	48.4	51.6	66.9	63.1	94.1	96.9	6.8	7.7	22.6	77.4	53.3	226
03. Indragiri Hilir	49.8	50.2	70.0	66.0	97.5	98.7	6.3	7.1	6.9	93.1	34.5	340
04. Pelalawan	47.7	52.3	68.3	64.4	91.4	96.7	5.6	6.4	16.4	83.6	47.0	300
05. Siak	49.8	50.2	72.5	68.5	97.4	99.0	8.7	8.9	24.2	75.8	59.2	122
06. Kampar	48.0	52.0	67.9	64.0	96.4	99.2	7.2	8.2	17.7	82.3	50.3	272
07. Rokan Hulu	49.4	50.6	65.2	61.4	93.2	96.7	5.6	7.2	21.6	78.4	50.1	276
08. Bengkalis	48.6	51.4	71.1	67.1	94.7	96.0	7.6	8.8	13.5	86.5	46.1	308
09. Rokan Hilir	48.3	51.7	68.0	64.1	95.5	95.3	6.7	7.4	8.0	92.0	35.4	338
10. Kepulauan Riau	49.2	50.8	70.8	66.8	84.1	92.4	6.5	7.3	18.1	81.9	49.0	282
11. Karimun	48.0	52.0	70.5	66.5	92.0	96.7	6.9	7.9	17.5	82.5	51.1	260
12. Natuna	47.4	52.6	67.7	63.9	88.5	92.5	6.6	7.2	13.8	86.2	43.0	324
71. Pekanbaru	49.8	50.2	72.3	68.3	99.1	99.5	10.9	11.4	20.6	79.4	57.8	143
72. Batam	56.2	43.8	71.6	67.7	98.8	99.3	10.9	10.9	40.1	59.9	68.6	9
73. Dumai	48.0	52.0	71.7	67.8	98.5	99.2	9.5	10.1	15.5	84.5	51.3	256
15. Jambi	49.3	50.7	68.8	64.8	92.1	97.3	6.7	8.0	21.9	78.1	53.3	27
01. Kerinci	50.0	50.0	70.9	66.9	91.4	94.8	6.7	8.0	23.8	76.2	55.6	184
02. Merangin	48.8	51.2	68.2	64.3	93.5	97.9	6.2	7.5	22.8	77.2	53.8	220
03. Sarolangun	50.0	50.0	68.5	64.6	86.5	94.1	5.2	6.6	18.9	81.1	47.4	297
04. Batanghari	50.0	50.0	68.0	64.2	94.4	99.1	6.1	7.7	22.4	77.6	52.9	230
05. Muara Jambi	48.1	51.9	68.2	64.3	89.7	98.0	6.2	7.4	26.1	73.9	57.4	149
06. East Tanjung Jabung	47.7	52.3	68.8	64.9	92.9	94.8	5.7	6.6	13.5	86.5	43.2	322
07. West Tanjung Jabung	48.7	51.3	70.7	66.8	93.6	98.3	6.7	7.7	19.0	81.0	51.8	250
08. Tebo	48.5	51.5	67.6	63.7	87.3	96.2	5.8	7.2	16.5	83.5	45.7	310
09. Bungo	49.4	50.6	64.4	60.7	91.1	98.0	6.1	7.7	23.1	76.9	51.6	253
71. Jambi	50.7	49.3	70.8	66.8	96.3	99.3	9.5	10.6	20.5	79.5	55.0	199
16. South Sumatera	49.7	50.3	67.5	63.7	91.4	96.8	6.7	7.6	25.7	74.3	55.5	22
01. Ogan Komering Ulu	48.7	51.3	69.9	66.0	89.1	95.3	6.0	7.0	32.7	67.3	61.8	72
02. Ogan Komering Hilir	49.3	50.7	64.7	60.9	91.0	95.6	5.8	6.7	35.4	64.6	59.6	118
03. Muara Enim (Liot)	49.2	50.8	66.1	62.3	90.2	97.9	5.7	7.2	18.9	81.1	47.5	295
04. Lahat	47.9	52.1	65.7	61.9	94.1	99.0	6.6	7.7	24.9	75.1	55.2	194
05. Musi Rawas	51.3	48.7	63.6	59.8	87.6	95.0	6.0	6.9	22.8	77.2	47.9	294
06. Musi Banyuasin	49.4	50.6	68.8	64.9	88.5	95.6	5.4	6.4	20.4	79.6	49.4	279
71. Palembang	51.7	48.3	70.3	66.3	96.7	99.1	9.3	10.2	23.1	76.9	56.7	167
17. Bengkulu	48.8	51.2	67.3	63.5	90.1	95.9	7.1	8.1	29.3	70.7	59.2	11
01. South Bengkulu	49.1	50.9	66.1	62.3	90.3	96.6	6.9	7.9	29.1	70.9	57.6	145
02. Rejang Lebong	48.4	51.6	64.5	60.7	89.6	96.2	6.3	7.3	24.7	75.3	53.7	222
03. North Bengkulu	48.2	51.8	67.7	63.9	85.3	92.9	5.9	7.2	12.6	87.4	50.2	274
71. Bengkulu	49.9	50.1	71.5	67.5	97.7	99.2	10.2	11.1	28.8	71.2	64.5	40
18. Lampung	48.6	51.4	68.0	64.1	89.8	96.0	6.4	7.4	26.8	73.2	57.0	14
01. West Lampung	47.6	52.4	65.6	61.8	91.1	96.2	6.5	7.2	44.0	56.0	62.8	57
02. Tanggamus	48.8	51.2	67.9	64.0	87.3	96.6	6.1	6.9	17.2	82.8	46.7	304
03. South Lampung	47.9	52.1	67.1	63.2	87.5	94.5	5.7	6.8	26.5	73.5	55.8	177
04. East Lampung	49.6	50.4	70.0	66.1	86.3	93.9	5.8	6.7	22.1	77.9	51.9	249
05. Central Lampung	48.3	51.7	69.1	65.2	90.3	96.5	6.4	7.4	23.8	76.2	55.6	182
06. North Lampung	49.8	50.2	67.3	63.4	94.3	97.7	6.8	7.6	34.2	65.8	61.8	69
07. Way Kanan	46.6	53.4	68.2	64.3	91.8	96.9	5.4	6.6	32.0	68.0	60.6	92
08. Tulang Bawang	47.8	52.2	66.6	62.7	89.4	94.9	5.7	6.5	26.3	73.7	54.9	200
71. Bandar Lampung	49.9	50.1	69.8	65.8	94.2	98.7	9.1	10.2	28.3	71.7	61.8	71
72. Metro	50.0	50.0	73.7	69.8	94.9	98.2	9.1	9.9	22.9	77.1	59.6	114

Province District	Proportion of population (%)		Life expectancy (years)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Mean years of schooling (years)		Share of earned income (%)		GDI	GDI ranking
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male		
19. Bangka Belitung	49.1	50.9	67.5	63.6	87.9	95.4	6.0	7.1	18.4	81.6	47.7	30
01. Bangka	49.3	50.7	68.2	64.3	85.5	94.0	5.3	6.4	19.6	80.4	48.5	285
02. Belitung	47.8	52.2	68.7	64.8	91.2	97.4	6.4	7.4	18.9	81.1	50.7	268
71. Pangkal Pinang	50.5	49.5	70.1	66.1	92.3	98.2	8.1	9.6	18.9	81.1	51.5	254
31. DKI Jakarta	50.2	49.8	74.2	70.3	97.2	99.3	9.8	11.1	28.5	71.5	66.7	1
71. South Jakarta	49.9	50.1	73.6	69.7	97.5	99.1	10.1	11.3	26.3	73.7	65.0	32
72. East Jakarta	50.2	49.8	74.4	70.6	97.7	99.4	10.3	11.6	27.2	72.8	66.0	23
73. Central Jakarta	51.4	48.6	72.6	68.7	97.0	99.2	9.9	11.3	32.0	68.0	67.7	15
74. West Jakarta	49.9	50.1	74.1	70.3	96.8	99.1	9.3	10.6	31.1	68.9	68.3	12
75. North Jakarta	50.3	49.7	74.0	70.2	96.9	99.5	9.0	10.7	27.4	72.6	65.2	29
32. West Java	49.3	50.7	66.3	62.5	90.5	95.7	6.7	7.7	26.6	73.4	56.3	21
01. Bogor	48.1	51.9	68.0	64.1	89.3	93.6	5.6	6.8	24.1	75.9	54.6	203
02. Sukabumi	49.8	50.2	64.8	61.1	92.5	96.2	5.5	6.3	23.2	76.8	50.9	262
03. Cianjur	47.7	52.3	65.9	62.1	93.7	97.6	5.6	6.5	24.7	75.3	54.6	207
04. Bandung	48.8	51.2	68.7	64.8	95.8	98.1	7.6	8.6	29.4	70.6	61.7	73
05. Garut	49.6	50.4	61.6	58.0	94.0	97.4	6.3	7.2	21.1	78.9	48.0	290
06. Tasikmalaya	49.2	50.8	67.9	64.1	95.8	98.9	6.4	7.3	21.0	79.0	52.4	239
07. Ciamis	51.3	48.7	65.9	62.1	93.4	97.3	6.1	6.8	26.8	73.2	54.6	206
08. Kuningan	50.5	49.5	66.9	63.1	86.6	94.6	5.9	6.9	24.0	76.0	52.2	242
09. Cirebon	49.6	50.4	65.2	61.4	81.4	92.6	5.4	6.7	20.4	79.6	46.9	303
10. Majalengka	50.2	49.8	65.4	61.6	86.7	95.5	5.8	7.0	22.2	77.8	49.9	277
11. Sumedang	49.2	50.8	68.6	64.7	93.6	97.1	6.6	7.4	32.7	67.3	62.4	62
12. Indramayu	50.3	49.7	65.6	61.8	67.4	85.1	4.4	5.8	19.1	80.9	42.8	325
13. Subang	50.9	49.1	67.5	63.6	79.0	89.6	4.7	5.9	27.4	72.6	53.0	229
14. Purwakarta	49.6	50.4	65.9	62.1	92.4	97.4	6.2	7.4	25.8	74.2	55.1	195
15. Karawang	49.9	50.1	64.7	60.9	83.3	91.1	5.8	7.0	22.5	77.5	49.1	281
16. Bekasi	48.0	52.0	69.0	65.0	88.2	94.0	6.8	8.0	20.4	79.6	52.3	241
71. Bogor	50.8	49.2	69.9	65.9	95.9	99.0	8.9	10.4	20.7	79.3	55.1	196
72. Sukabumi	49.5	50.5	68.1	64.2	98.0	99.3	8.4	9.2	20.0	80.0	53.1	228
73. Bandung	49.6	50.4	70.8	66.8	98.4	99.4	9.8	10.9	26.1	73.9	62.6	59
74. Cirebon	51.3	48.7	69.5	65.6	92.9	97.9	8.2	9.5	24.2	75.8	56.2	173
75. Bekasi	48.4	51.6	70.0	66.1	96.7	99.2	9.8	11.0	27.8	72.2	64.6	38
76. Depok	48.9	51.1	73.7	69.8	94.0	98.3	9.1	10.3	23.7	76.3	61.7	74
33. Central Java	50.2	49.8	70.8	66.8	80.0	91.6	5.9	7.2	30.0	70.0	58.7	12
01. Cilacap	50.0	50.0	69.7	65.7	81.1	93.0	5.4	6.7	26.8	73.2	55.4	187
02. Banyumas	49.9	50.1	70.6	66.6	85.8	93.4	5.8	6.9	20.6	79.4	50.9	264
03. Purbalingga	50.6	49.4	69.5	65.6	85.5	92.2	5.2	6.0	47.1	52.9	64.7	35
04. Banjarnegara	50.3	49.7	69.7	65.7	77.8	86.9	4.9	5.8	25.6	74.4	52.6	234
05. Kebumen	50.4	49.6	69.5	65.5	81.3	90.2	5.7	6.7	23.2	76.8	52.0	247
06. Purworejo	50.0	50.0	69.9	65.9	83.8	93.3	6.4	7.9	27.3	72.7	58.5	131
07. Wonosobo	48.8	51.2	70.4	66.4	81.3	88.6	5.2	6.0	24.9	75.1	54.0	217
08. Magelang	50.4	49.6	70.8	66.8	83.9	94.1	6.4	7.7	30.9	69.1	60.1	102
09. Boyolali	49.8	50.2	71.5	67.6	73.7	90.1	5.8	7.5	32.8	67.2	60.1	104
10. Klaten	50.2	49.8	71.7	67.8	75.8	90.3	6.4	8.3	34.0	66.0	62.7	58
11. Sukoharjo	50.4	49.6	71.2	67.2	76.6	88.1	7.3	8.4	33.7	66.3	62.4	61
12. Wonogiri	51.4	48.6	73.5	69.6	69.0	86.7	5.1	6.7	35.6	64.4	61.6	76
13. Karanganyar	50.0	50.0	73.7	69.8	70.5	87.6	6.1	7.8	30.5	69.5	61.0	86
14. Sragen	50.0	50.0	73.4	69.5	67.0	84.0	5.2	6.8	31.8	68.2	58.6	129
15. Grobogan	50.5	49.5	70.1	66.1	81.4	91.7	5.6	7.0	26.8	73.2	55.3	193
16. Blora	49.8	50.2	72.2	68.2	73.1	88.5	5.0	6.4	30.1	69.9	57.5	147
17. Rembang	49.8	50.2	70.5	66.6	78.3	93.3	5.2	6.3	20.0	80.0	49.0	283
18. Pati	49.6	50.4	74.4	70.5	81.3	93.9	5.8	7.2	28.0	72.0	59.9	106

Province District	Proportion of population (%)		Life expectancy (years)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Mean years of schooling (years)		Share of earned income (%)		GDI	GDI ranking
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male		
19. Kudus	52.0	48.0	70.1	66.1	83.8	94.3	6.6	7.8	30.0	70.0	58.3	137
20. Jepara	48.7	51.3	72.0	68.0	80.4	93.4	5.8	7.1	23.0	77.0	54.4	209
21. Demak	50.3	49.7	70.8	66.8	79.0	92.9	5.7	7.2	27.5	72.5	56.7	168
22. Semarang	50.4	49.6	73.2	69.3	82.3	95.1	6.0	7.6	37.7	62.3	66.3	21
23. Temanggung	50.1	49.9	73.3	69.4	88.1	95.1	6.0	6.7	26.8	73.2	59.4	120
24. Kendal	50.9	49.1	66.8	63.0	83.5	94.0	5.9	7.0	31.4	68.6	58.4	132
25. Batang	50.9	49.1	70.6	66.7	79.3	90.8	5.4	6.4	22.0	78.0	50.4	271
26. Pekalongan	50.5	49.5	68.5	64.6	79.7	89.8	5.3	6.0	35.7	64.3	59.8	110
27. Pemalang	49.5	50.5	67.1	63.2	76.7	88.1	4.8	6.0	24.7	75.3	50.8	265
28. Tegal	50.2	49.8	68.0	64.2	75.4	90.6	4.9	6.4	28.6	71.4	54.6	205
29. Brebes	49.9	50.1	66.1	62.3	74.3	88.0	4.3	5.7	35.3	64.7	57.2	154
71. Magelang	53.0	47.0	71.2	67.2	92.9	98.7	9.3	10.5	32.5	67.5	65.3	28
72. Surakarta	52.1	47.9	73.0	69.1	91.6	97.9	9.2	10.5	33.2	66.8	66.5	20
73. Salatiga	50.6	49.4	72.1	68.1	89.2	97.5	8.9	10.2	47.5	52.5	72.5	1
74. Semarang	49.7	50.3	72.3	68.3	92.6	98.4	9.3	10.7	31.6	68.4	67.2	17
75. Pekalongan	50.7	49.3	70.5	66.6	88.5	94.8	7.3	8.3	26.2	73.8	57.3	150
76. Tegal	50.2	49.8	68.8	64.9	85.9	96.4	6.9	8.3	28.1	71.9	59.2	123
34. D. I. Yogyakarta	50.3	49.7	74.2	70.4	79.4	92.7	7.3	9.0	33.4	66.6	65.2	2
01. Kulon Progo	51.7	48.3	74.5	70.7	76.3	90.3	6.5	8.2	33.1	66.9	62.9	53
02. Bantul	49.7	50.3	72.3	68.3	76.8	90.2	6.9	8.3	30.8	69.2	61.5	81
03. Gunung Kidul	51.6	48.4	72.2	68.2	63.9	82.0	6.1	8.5	35.7	64.3	59.8	111
04. Sleman	48.4	51.6	74.5	70.6	82.9	93.9	8.8	10.5	32.2	67.8	67.5	16
71. Yogyakarta	52.7	47.3	74.8	70.9	91.7	98.6	10.0	11.5	33.9	66.1	68.8	8
35. East Java	50.9	49.1	67.9	64.0	77.3	89.5	5.9	7.2	30.4	69.6	56.3	19
01. Pacitan	52.0	48.0	72.0	68.0	74.5	90.0	5.3	6.7	23.5	76.5	51.1	259
02. Ponorogo	51.1	48.9	68.8	64.9	69.7	84.2	5.1	6.3	33.7	66.3	56.8	163
03. Trenggalek	49.9	50.1	71.7	67.8	82.0	94.2	5.8	6.9	25.7	74.3	57.2	155
04. Tulungagung	51.8	48.2	72.2	68.2	83.4	92.6	6.1	7.1	24.1	75.9	54.0	216
05. Blitar	51.1	48.9	70.8	66.8	79.1	91.0	5.7	6.8	27.7	72.3	57.0	160
06. Kediri	50.2	49.8	70.1	66.1	81.2	93.9	6.0	7.3	22.9	77.1	52.4	238
07. Malang	50.6	49.4	68.5	64.6	80.2	92.8	5.8	7.0	27.2	72.8	55.1	198
08. Lumajang	51.5	48.5	66.9	63.1	73.0	85.0	5.1	6.2	22.4	77.6	46.4	307
09. Jember	51.3	48.7	61.6	58.0	70.7	85.5	4.8	6.3	22.2	77.8	43.0	323
10. Banyuwangi	50.5	49.5	66.3	62.5	75.9	90.0	5.2	6.7	16.9	83.1	42.1	327
11. Bondowoso	50.6	49.4	60.7	57.2	55.2	76.3	3.9	5.6	27.8	72.2	44.4	319
12. Situbondo	51.6	48.4	63.3	59.6	57.6	76.6	3.7	5.3	24.1	75.9	42.4	326
13. Probolinggo	50.5	49.5	61.1	57.5	66.2	81.3	4.2	5.6	60.5	39.5	32.2	341
14. Pasuruan	51.4	48.6	63.3	59.6	81.6	93.7	5.4	6.9	32.8	67.2	55.3	192
15. Sidoarjo	50.5	49.5	70.1	66.1	94.1	98.0	8.7	10.1	29.6	70.4	63.5	49
16. Mojokerto	50.5	49.5	70.0	66.0	84.9	94.0	6.0	7.2	28.7	71.3	58.8	127
17. Jombang	50.5	49.5	68.8	64.9	83.3	93.9	6.4	7.8	21.4	78.6	50.7	269
18. Nganjuk	50.4	49.6	69.1	65.2	79.1	89.8	5.9	7.1	28.5	71.5	55.9	176
19. Madiun	49.9	50.1	69.3	65.3	75.3	87.1	5.9	7.0	28.3	71.7	55.6	183
20. Magetan	51.6	48.4	71.8	67.8	80.3	93.0	6.3	7.8	34.1	65.9	61.6	75
21. Ngawi	50.2	49.8	69.3	65.3	69.9	87.1	5.1	6.4	22.2	77.8	48.0	291
22. Bojonegoro	50.7	49.3	67.5	63.6	71.1	83.3	4.9	6.1	25.6	74.4	49.4	280
23. Tuban	51.2	48.8	67.8	63.9	68.6	86.0	4.7	5.9	23.1	76.9	46.9	301
24. Lamongan	51.1	48.9	68.4	64.5	76.5	90.1	5.6	7.1	25.9	74.1	52.4	236
25. Gresik	49.8	50.2	70.0	66.0	86.9	94.7	6.8	8.1	28.5	71.5	60.6	91
26. Bangkalan	51.3	48.7	63.2	59.5	65.6	82.7	4.3	5.8	25.3	74.7	45.5	313
27. Sampang	51.8	48.2	59.2	55.7	47.2	66.7	2.3	3.7	27.2	72.8	38.8	332
28. Pamekasan	52.0	48.0	63.5	59.8	66.6	82.0	4.5	6.2	33.9	66.1	52.2	243
29. Sumenep	53.2	46.8	63.0	59.3	60.3	80.5	3.3	5.1	32.9	67.1	48.9	284
71. Kediri	52.2	47.8	70.6	66.6	92.9	97.9	8.8	9.9	42.8	57.2	69.1	7
72. Blitar	51.9	48.1	72.0	68.0	92.9	97.9	8.6	9.3	27.3	72.7	60.3	98

Province District	Proportion of population (%)		Life expectancy (years)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Mean years of schooling (years)		Share of earned income (%)		GDI	GDI ranking
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male		
73. Malang	51.0	49.0	68.5	64.6	92.4	97.5	9.3	10.8	31.2	68.8	63.9	45
74. Probolinggo	51.3	48.7	69.9	65.9	82.4	94.5	6.5	8.1	25.7	74.3	55.6	181
75. Pasuruan	50.8	49.2	66.6	62.8	88.3	95.6	7.6	8.7	27.6	72.4	57.6	144
76. Mojokerto	50.8	49.2	72.2	68.2	94.0	98.4	9.0	10.2	29.3	70.7	64.2	43
77. Madiun	50.5	49.5	71.2	67.2	90.8	97.4	9.2	10.5	31.6	68.4	64.2	42
78. Surabaya	50.5	49.5	70.5	66.6	94.3	97.6	9.4	10.3	31.9	68.1	65.5	25
36. Banten	49.1	50.9	64.3	60.5	91.1	96.6	7.2	8.5	24.4	75.6	54.9	24
01. Pandeglang	48.7	51.3	63.4	59.7	92.2	97.2	5.4	6.4	19.7	80.3	47.4	296
02. Lebak	48.7	51.3	63.7	60.0	87.6	92.7	4.8	5.9	29.7	70.3	54.9	201
03. Tangerang	49.1	50.9	65.7	61.9	90.9	96.6	7.8	9.3	24.2	75.8	56.4	172
04. Serang	48.1	51.9	61.9	58.3	87.4	96.2	6.0	7.5	17.4	82.6	45.1	315
71. Tangerang	50.7	49.3	69.2	65.2	95.3	98.5	9.5	10.9	26.2	73.8	60.9	89
72. Cilegon	49.2	50.8	69.3	65.3	97.4	99.5	8.7	10.4	18.0	82.0	52.4	237
51. Bali	49.2	50.8	71.9	67.9	77.5	90.9	6.7	8.4	31.1	68.9	61.2	7
01. Jembrana	49.9	50.1	72.4	68.5	81.6	91.3	6.3	7.9	28.9	71.1	60.4	95
02. Tabanan	49.3	50.7	75.6	71.8	78.5	92.0	6.5	8.4	31.7	68.3	64.4	41
03. Badung	49.9	50.1	73.0	69.1	84.5	93.4	8.1	9.6	32.9	67.1	64.7	36
04. Gianyar	48.1	51.9	73.3	69.4	74.9	89.3	6.5	8.5	27.7	72.3	59.6	115
05. Klungkung	50.2	49.8	69.3	65.3	70.7	85.9	5.3	7.2	33.3	66.7	59.1	125
06. Bangli	49.3	50.7	73.0	68.9	77.6	88.3	5.5	6.8	33.0	67.0	61.6	77
07. Karangasem	50.3	49.7	68.5	64.6	57.1	79.2	3.9	5.6	30.9	69.1	52.0	248
08. Buleleng	49.2	50.8	68.0	64.1	72.7	92.4	5.3	7.4	17.9	82.1	45.2	314
71. Denpasar	48.4	51.6	74.2	70.4	92.0	97.4	10.0	11.5	32.7	67.3	70.1	4
52. West Nusa Tenggara	51.8	48.2	61.0	57.4	72.4	83.9	5.2	6.6	33.2	66.8	51.6	29
01. West Lombok	51.7	48.3	59.6	56.1	65.7	80.6	4.3	5.7	28.2	71.8	45.1	316
02. Central Lombok	53.2	46.8	59.2	55.7	59.8	78.4	3.9	5.9	44.4	55.6	52.2	244
03. East Lombok	52.7	47.3	59.3	55.9	72.3	79.4	5.1	5.9	18.8	81.2	36.8	337
04. Sumbawa	49.8	50.2	59.8	56.3	83.5	91.7	6.3	7.7	36.0	64.0	57.4	148
05. Dompu	49.5	50.5	61.2	57.6	74.5	85.1	5.9	7.1	37.8	62.2	55.9	175
06. Bima	51.2	48.8	60.3	56.8	78.3	86.9	6.4	7.4	30.5	69.5	51.4	255
71. Mataram	50.4	49.6	64.9	61.1	91.7	98.4	6.4	8.5	34.0	66.0	60.2	100
53. East Nusa Tenggara	50.8	49.2	65.6	61.8	81.4	87.1	5.6	6.4	35.7	64.3	56.3	20
01. West Sumba	49.9	50.1	64.2	60.5	68.4	74.9	5.0	5.6	39.6	60.4	51.6	251
02. East Sumba	49.0	51.0	61.2	57.6	77.2	84.8	5.4	5.7	47.0	53.0	56.8	166
03. Kupang	50.6	49.4	66.1	62.3	79.4	81.9	5.1	5.7	24.1	75.9	45.6	311
04. Southern Central Timor	50.4	49.6	67.6	63.7	75.1	83.3	4.8	5.8	15.9	84.1	38.1	334
05. Northern Central Timor	50.1	49.9	67.3	63.4	76.6	82.6	5.3	5.9	29.8	70.2	52.4	240
06. Belu	50.1	49.9	65.6	61.8	76.3	82.3	5.6	6.1	33.5	66.5	53.6	223
07. Alor	49.8	50.2	64.9	61.1	89.9	95.7	6.3	7.6	24.5	75.5	47.3	298
08. Lembata	54.7	45.3	66.8	63.0	88.4	95.5	5.4	6.6	50.2	49.8	61.3	85
09. East Flores	52.1	47.9	68.0	64.1	80.7	89.4	5.3	6.7	47.1	52.9	62.1	64
10. Sikka	52.7	47.3	67.8	63.9	83.8	87.7	5.1	5.8	36.7	63.3	54.4	210
11. Ende	54.9	45.1	64.9	61.2	87.3	94.3	5.8	7.1	45.9	54.1	59.9	107
12. Ngada	50.5	49.5	67.0	63.2	89.2	92.9	6.2	6.7	37.5	62.5	61.0	87
13. Manggarai	50.9	49.1	66.0	62.2	82.0	89.8	5.2	6.1	54.6	45.4	59.9	105
71. Kupang	48.8	51.2	71.7	67.8	96.6	98.5	9.6	10.7	24.6	75.4	60.3	97

Province District	Proportion of population (%)		Life expectancy (years)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Mean years of schooling (years)		Share of earned income (%)		GDI	GDI ranking
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male		
61. West Kalimantan	48.8	51.2	66.2	62.4	81.7	92.0	5.8	6.9	31.1	68.9	57.0	13
01. Sambas	50.3	49.7	59.7	56.2	83.5	95.3	5.0	6.4	33.6	66.4	54.2	211
02. Bengkayang	48.4	51.6	69.0	65.1	77.8	89.1	5.4	6.4	23.5	76.5	51.6	252
03. Landak	46.8	53.2	65.2	61.4	81.6	91.8	5.9	7.1	30.2	69.8	56.4	171
04. Pontianak	47.9	52.1	68.0	64.1	81.5	93.2	5.5	6.8	29.9	70.1	57.9	141
05. Sanggau	49.6	50.4	68.2	64.3	77.0	90.5	5.0	6.4	32.7	67.3	56.9	161
06. Ketapang	47.3	52.7	67.1	63.3	84.3	94.1	5.3	6.2	32.8	67.2	59.6	116
07. Sintang	48.7	51.3	68.5	64.5	78.1	87.0	4.7	6.0	28.4	71.6	54.1	213
08. Kapuas Hulu	48.6	51.4	67.2	63.3	79.6	90.2	5.5	6.7	40.5	59.5	61.4	83
71. Pontianak	52.0	48.0	67.1	63.3	88.8	95.0	8.8	9.7	27.4	72.6	56.8	162
62. Central Kalimantan	48.2	51.8	71.3	67.4	94.9	97.7	7.1	8.0	27.3	72.7	60.9	8
01. West Kotawaringin	47.2	52.8	72.2	68.2	92.7	95.7	7.0	8.0	38.1	61.9	59.4	119
02. East Kotawaringin	47.1	52.9	69.9	65.9	95.0	97.5	6.6	7.4	15.3	84.7	48.0	292
03. Kapuas	48.8	51.2	71.6	67.7	94.2	98.1	6.8	7.9	30.9	69.1	63.0	51
04. South Barito	49.2	50.8	68.6	64.7	95.4	98.3	7.3	8.0	34.1	65.9	63.5	48
05. North Barito	48.2	51.8	73.1	69.2	95.4	98.4	6.7	7.5	25.3	74.7	59.9	109
71. Palangka Raya	50.2	49.8	74.8	71.0	98.4	99.3	10.0	11.0	27.8	72.2	65.0	33
63. South Kalimantan	49.9	50.1	63.1	59.4	90.5	96.2	6.5	7.6	29.5	70.5	56.6	18
01. Tanah Laut	49.8	50.2	68.4	64.5	88.0	95.4	5.5	6.7	27.3	72.7	56.5	170
02. Kota Baru	49.3	50.7	64.6	60.8	87.7	94.9	5.6	7.0	16.6	83.4	44.6	318
03. Banjar	49.3	50.7	64.1	60.3	90.3	94.9	6.1	7.3	29.6	70.4	57.1	158
04. Barito Kuala	50.7	49.3	59.8	56.2	87.5	95.9	5.7	6.7	45.9	54.1	58.0	138
05. Tapin	50.5	49.5	66.7	62.9	88.7	96.5	5.8	7.3	27.8	72.2	57.2	153
06. South Hulu Sungai	50.3	49.7	63.0	59.4	90.8	96.2	6.3	7.0	27.9	72.1	55.3	190
07. Central Hulu Sungai	50.3	49.7	64.0	60.3	93.1	96.9	6.5	7.5	24.0	76.0	52.1	245
08. North Hulu Sungai	50.4	49.6	60.8	57.2	90.7	96.0	5.6	6.4	34.0	66.0	56.8	165
09. Tabalong	51.3	48.7	63.0	59.3	88.6	97.1	6.1	7.3	27.1	72.9	52.8	232
71. Banjarmasin	49.8	50.2	66.6	62.8	93.4	97.3	8.1	9.5	23.6	76.4	56.1	174
72. Banjar Baru	48.5	51.5	68.3	64.4	96.9	98.8	9.5	10.5	25.0	75.0	60.9	88
64. East Kalimantan	48.0	52.0	71.3	67.4	93.1	97.1	7.8	9.1	18.7	81.3	53.4	26
01. Pasir	48.6	51.4	73.2	69.3	85.7	92.9	6.3	7.2	20.1	79.9	52.7	233
02. West Kutai	47.3	52.7	71.0	67.0	90.3	95.7	6.6	7.9	21.1	78.9	54.6	204
03. Kutai	47.1	52.9	68.1	64.2	93.8	97.4	6.9	8.4	17.9	82.1	51.0	261
04. East Kutai	46.0	54.0	69.0	65.1	92.6	96.2	6.5	8.1	16.5	83.5	45.5	312
05. Berau	46.3	53.7	70.4	66.4	91.1	96.5	6.8	8.2	18.9	81.1	52.9	231
06. Malinau	48.0	52.0	69.1	65.2	84.0	94.3	5.2	6.8	47.3	52.7	57.0	159
07. Bulongan	47.6	52.4	73.8	69.9	89.4	96.7	6.3	7.6	23.8	76.2	58.7	128
08. Nunukan	48.6	51.4	71.6	67.6	89.3	94.9	6.6	7.4	22.9	77.1	55.5	186
71. Balikpapan	49.8	50.2	72.7	68.8	94.6	97.9	9.3	10.6	21.9	78.1	58.4	134
72. Samarinda	48.4	51.6	71.1	67.1	96.2	98.5	8.9	10.2	19.8	80.2	56.5	169
73. Tarakan	47.0	53.0	72.8	68.8	98.3	99.5	9.0	9.9	21.1	78.9	59.1	124
74. Bontang	47.9	52.1	73.3	69.4	97.4	99.0	9.3	10.7	9.2	90.8	43.5	321
71. North Sulawesi	48.5	51.5	72.8	68.8	98.7	98.9	8.5	8.6	26.3	73.7	62.1	4
01. Bolaang Mongondow	47.8	52.2	71.9	67.9	97.5	97.6	7.0	7.1	20.9	79.1	55.1	197
02. Minahasa	48.6	51.4	73.3	69.4	99.3	99.5	8.5	8.4	26.6	73.4	62.9	54
03. Sangihe Talaud	48.3	51.7	73.7	69.8	97.5	97.8	7.3	7.4	27.6	72.4	62.2	63
71. Manado	48.8	51.2	73.4	69.5	99.5	100.0	10.6	11.2	30.5	69.5	67.9	14
72. Bitung	49.6	50.4	71.4	67.5	98.3	98.3	8.9	9.1	26.1	73.9	60.6	90

Province District	Proportion of population (%)		Life expectancy (years)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Mean years of schooling (years)		Share of earned income (%)		GDI	GDI ranking
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male		
72. Central Sulawesi	48.9	51.1	65.1	61.4	91.6	94.9	7.0	7.7	33.9	66.1	60.3	10
01. Banggai Kepulauan	48.1	51.9	61.8	58.2	90.1	94.2	6.1	7.0	12.7	87.3	37.6	336
02. Banggai	50.8	49.2	69.0	65.1	88.2	94.6	6.6	7.6	21.0	79.0	50.2	273
03. Morowali	48.2	51.8	65.5	61.7	93.3	97.1	6.9	7.7	18.4	81.6	48.3	287
04. Poso	47.6	52.4	63.3	59.6	96.1	97.5	7.3	7.9	93.1	6.9	60.5	94
05. Donggala	48.7	51.3	63.6	59.9	88.7	92.1	6.3	6.8	17.3	82.7	44.1	320
06. Toli-Toli	49.3	50.7	63.3	59.6	93.9	96.9	6.7	7.5	11.6	88.4	38.0	335
07. Buol	48.0	52.0	64.3	60.6	95.7	97.0	6.8	7.4	21.3	78.7	47.1	299
71. Palu	50.1	49.9	68.9	65.0	97.3	98.8	10.2	10.7	28.5	71.5	62.0	67
73. South Sulawesi	51.0	49.0	70.5	66.5	80.8	86.6	6.4	7.3	29.4	70.6	56.9	15
01. Selayar	53.1	46.9	68.4	64.5	81.8	90.6	5.6	6.3	31.0	69.0	55.3	189
02. Bulukumba	51.8	48.2	70.6	66.6	79.1	81.4	5.7	6.1	22.1	77.9	48.3	286
03. Bantaeng	50.9	49.1	73.4	69.5	68.0	73.8	5.1	5.6	30.6	69.4	55.3	191
04. Jeneponto	51.2	48.8	66.0	62.2	63.4	68.8	4.8	5.4	65.8	34.2	55.8	178
05. Takalar	53.2	46.8	68.8	64.9	75.9	82.0	5.4	6.0	40.2	59.8	59.2	121
06. Gowa	49.8	50.2	72.4	68.4	73.4	78.1	5.9	6.7	27.3	72.7	54.9	202
07. Sinjai	52.3	47.7	71.8	67.9	80.0	83.8	5.6	6.3	23.5	76.5	50.2	275
08. Maros	50.9	49.1	71.4	67.4	76.9	82.1	5.4	6.2	22.4	77.6	49.6	278
09. Pangkajene Kepulauan	51.6	48.4	69.3	65.3	77.9	84.4	5.5	6.5	15.6	84.4	41.1	329
10. Barru	52.9	47.1	69.0	65.1	84.3	89.0	6.7	7.1	26.8	73.2	53.9	219
11. Bone	53.7	46.3	69.3	65.4	79.3	83.9	5.4	6.2	28.1	71.9	52.0	246
12. Soppeng	53.4	46.6	72.9	69.0	85.9	90.7	6.6	7.4	69.9	30.1	53.9	218
13. Wajo	52.2	47.8	69.0	65.1	79.6	86.0	5.1	5.9	11.6	88.4	35.1	339
14. Sidenreng Rappang	51.3	48.7	71.5	67.6	81.2	88.4	6.2	7.2	22.3	77.7	51.2	258
15. Pinrang	50.2	49.8	71.0	67.1	82.4	90.2	5.9	6.7	18.8	81.2	48.1	289
16. Enrekang	47.8	52.2	74.5	70.7	80.6	89.1	6.3	7.2	41.5	58.5	65.4	26
17. Luwu	49.8	50.2	73.6	69.7	84.5	92.3	6.8	7.6	28.2	71.8	59.7	113
18. Tana Toraja	47.9	52.1	75.4	71.6	79.4	86.4	6.8	7.7	36.5	63.5	64.8	34
19. Polewali Mamasa	52.1	47.9	64.9	61.1	76.8	84.4	5.2	6.1	33.3	66.7	53.5	225
20. Majene	52.2	47.8	64.1	60.4	89.7	95.2	6.9	7.2	27.8	72.2	53.6	224
21. Mamuju	49.5	50.5	69.0	65.1	79.9	87.0	5.5	6.3	23.7	76.3	50.9	263
22. North Luwu	49.3	50.7	71.8	67.9	88.8	93.7	6.8	7.6	10.8	89.2	40.5	331
71. Ujung Pandang	50.4	49.6	73.8	69.9	92.8	96.7	9.8	10.8	27.0	73.0	63.6	47
72. Pare Pare	50.0	50.0	74.5	70.6	92.1	97.1	8.6	9.9	21.4	78.6	57.3	151
74. South East Sulawesi	50.4	49.6	67.0	63.2	84.3	92.4	6.7	7.9	30.2	69.8	56.8	17
01. Buton	51.0	49.0	68.2	64.3	79.5	89.5	5.7	6.7	28.7	71.3	54.1	214
02. Muna	53.0	47.0	66.3	62.5	75.7	89.2	5.7	7.1	33.4	66.6	54.5	208
03. Kendari	48.4	51.6	67.5	63.6	89.3	95.9	7.0	8.0	39.9	60.1	63.6	46
04. Kolaka	49.3	50.7	66.9	63.1	88.8	93.4	6.9	7.9	26.2	73.8	55.5	185
71. Kendari	51.1	48.9	69.6	65.6	95.4	98.4	10.0	11.2	22.2	77.8	55.7	179
75. Gorontalo	48.7	51.3	66.0	62.2	95.3	95.2	6.6	6.3	23.7	76.3	52.7	28
01. Boalemo	47.6	52.4	68.0	64.1	93.8	94.1	6.0	5.7	21.4	78.6	51.3	257
02. Gorontalo	48.8	51.2	67.8	63.9	94.8	94.4	6.2	5.9	23.6	76.4	53.1	227
71. Gorontalo	49.9	50.1	66.6	62.8	98.5	99.3	8.9	8.7	27.3	72.7	58.5	130
81. Maluku	49.1	50.9	67.4	63.5	95.0	97.1	7.7	8.2	40.6	59.4	62.6	3
01. West South-East Maluku	50.2	49.8	62.5	58.8	98.3	98.6	7.2	7.7	46.2	53.8	62.0	66
02. South-East Maluku	48.2	51.8	68.6	64.6	97.1	99.0	7.4	8.1	29.5	70.5	61.3	84
03. Central Maluku	49.2	50.8	66.0	62.2	95.9	98.2	7.6	7.7	36.4	63.6	54.1	212
04. Buru	48.3	51.7	67.3	63.5	80.5	86.9	5.7	6.7	37.1	62.9	41.3	328
71. Ambon	48.8	51.2	73.9	70.0	98.5	99.3	10.1	10.6	50.6	49.4	71.3	2

Province District	Proportion of population (%)		Life expectancy (years)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Mean years of schooling (years)		Share of earned income (%)		GDI	GDI ranking
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male		
82. North Maluku	49.7	50.3	64.8	61.0	94.5	97.2	7.4	8.4	40.2	59.8	55.0	23
01. North Maluku	49.3	50.7	64.6	60.8	94.5	96.6	6.7	7.7	28.5	71.5	44.7	317
02. Central Halmahera	49.8	50.2	65.2	61.5	92.5	97.0	6.9	8.2	28.3	71.7	47.9	293
71. Ternate	50.8	49.2	69.5	65.5	96.3	99.0	9.6	10.8	44.4	55.6	62.9	52
91. Papua	47.8	52.2	67.0	63.2	67.5	78.4	5.1	6.6	37.7	62.3	54.3	25
01. Merauke	47.3	52.7	60.9	57.4	76.1	85.1	5.3	6.7	51.3	48.7	55.4	188
02. Jayawijaya	47.6	52.4	66.6	62.8	23.4	46.3	1.5	3.5	50.9	49.1	46.7	305
03. Jayapura	49.2	50.8	67.6	63.7	82.0	89.2	5.8	7.5	51.1	48.9	59.6	117
04. Nabire	48.1	51.9	68.0	64.1	72.8	78.6	4.5	5.6	23.2	76.8	38.5	333
05. Paniai	48.1	51.9	68.2	64.3	60.6	63.8	5.6	6.5	51.4	48.6	57.6	146
06. Puncak Jaya	48.1	51.9	68.2	64.3	83.9	89.2	5.5	6.5	41.7	58.3	65.9	24
07. Fak Fak	48.6	51.4	70.7	66.7	75.2	89.3	6.0	7.6	39.5	60.5	50.8	266
08. Mimika	48.9	51.1	70.1	66.1	80.5	88.0	5.5	6.8	51.0	49.0	58.3	136
09. Sorong	48.5	51.5	66.7	62.9	83.8	89.3	6.7	8.1	31.4	68.6	46.6	306
10. Manokwari	51.0	49.0	68.2	64.3	44.7	76.5	3.4	7.5	39.0	61.0	48.2	288
11. Yapen Waropen	45.8	54.2	64.9	61.1	47.1	81.9	3.9	7.9	36.2	63.8	40.6	330
12. Biak Numfor	47.3	52.7	66.3	62.5	89.7	92.5	7.7	8.5	25.9	74.1	50.7	267
71. Jayapura	45.5	54.5	68.9	65.0	92.0	97.4	8.8	10.6	40.6	59.4	64.6	39
72. Sorong	47.4	52.6	70.4	66.5	97.4	99.7	9.8	10.3	31.7	68.3	62.0	65
Indonesia	49.9	50.1	68.1	64.2	85.7	93.5	6.5	7.6	28.9	71.1	59.2	

Notes:

1. Districts in Nangroe Aceh Darussalam, Maluku, North Maluku, and Papua use 2003 data.
2. The number before each province or district is the official area code. District refers to both regency (kabupaten) and city (kota). Where two districts have the same name, the one with a code number above 70 is a city.

Source: BPS special tabulation

9 Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) by district, 1999

Province District	Participation of women in parliament (%)	Females in senior official, managerial and technical staff positions (%)	Females in the labour force (%)	Female population (%)	Average Non-agricultural wage (thousand Rupiah)		GEM
					Female	Male	
11. D. I. Aceh	8.3	54.4	38.4	0.499	271,929	383,423	52.4
01. South Aceh	0.0	47.8	32.2	0.485	295,399	433,185	38.5
02. South East Aceh	3.3	41.8	45.2	0.506	340,415	372,600	50.6
03. East Aceh	2.2	57.9	30.6	0.484	258,687	319,212	42.5
04. Central Aceh	0.0	54.5	41.1	0.501	265,773	463,646	40.6
05. West Aceh	2.6	37.3	38.7	0.491	219,613	364,612	42.2
06. Aceh Besar	0.0	59.3	36.6	0.499	323,321	360,113	43.4
07. Pidie	0.0	47.5	45.2	0.529	224,237	380,105	42.4
08. North Aceh	8.9	62.6	41.6	0.504	290,911	408,091	50.3
71. Banda Aceh	0.0	53.3	31.7	0.501	260,945	401,921	37.4
72. Sabang	5.0	58.5	35.7	0.497	219,075	314,671	43.3
12. North Sumatera	2.8	53.8	41.0	0.499	261,931	385,560	47.3
01. Nias	0.0	45.1	46.1	0.491	342,196	401,815	36.6
02. South Tapanuli	2.2	63.2	48.7	0.501	311,552	373,204	49.0
03. Central Tapanuli	3.3	51.7	45.1	0.505	337,748	390,738	50.1
04. North Tapanuli	2.5	53.9	49.9	0.487	329,665	366,364	52.5
05. Labuhan Batu	0.0	52.5	32.0	0.498	242,431	517,465	30.7
06. Asahan	2.2	61.1	37.2	0.497	219,132	325,834	42.7
07. Simalungun	6.7	59.5	44.5	0.507	252,170	311,125	54.0
08. Dairi	3.3	63.4	50.7	0.502	350,455	359,114	46.9
09. Karo	0.0	60.4	49.7	0.510	312,350	349,945	48.6
10. Deli Serdang	4.4	42.3	38.7	0.490	214,044	344,906	47.5
11. Langkat	4.4	54.0	35.0	0.497	291,446	482,499	43.4
71. Sibolga	5.0	65.6	35.4	0.499	289,185	412,726	44.3
72. Tanjung Balai	4.0	71.7	29.3	0.497	217,832	398,744	31.1
73. Pematang Siantar	10.0	49.0	34.9	0.496	205,420	343,201	50.9
74. Tebing Tinggi	0.0	56.2	29.5	0.505	265,120	320,154	38.6
75. Medan	2.2	54.2	35.8	0.510	282,646	427,185	42.9
76. Binjai	0.0	60.9	35.1	0.497	228,609	304,844	40.0
13. West Sumatera	6.1	58.8	40.3	0.514	299,577	389,520	51.5
01. Pesisir Selatan	2.5	55.4	34.3	0.498	321,548	392,772	45.9
02. Solok	2.5	55.1	41.7	0.511	278,231	324,978	49.8
03. Sawah Lunto/Sijunjung	8.6	52.8	41.0	0.488	331,668	397,187	58.1
04. Tanah Datar	0.0	67.8	40.3	0.527	284,120	366,678	40.7
05. Padang Pariaman	2.2	45.4	42.5	0.524	257,240	382,730	46.4
06. Agam	0.0	71.8	43.9	0.523	317,288	408,211	40.9
07. Limapuluh Koto	5.7	74.3	43.0	0.536	263,003	327,085	45.5
08. Pasaman	2.2	62.0	42.5	0.503	290,987	310,294	49.1
71. Padang	2.3	56.2	34.8	0.512	331,858	433,353	44.6
72. Solok	0.0	53.9	35.7	0.503	313,947	404,465	43.0
73. Sawah Lunto	0.0	56.2	35.9	0.534	281,085	375,157	40.1
74. Padang Panjang	5.0	56.3	42.7	0.531	308,778	363,289	53.1
75. Bukit Tinggi	15.0	61.5	39.9	0.508	253,600	411,048	57.2
76. Payakumbuh	12.5	58.4	40.6	0.515	247,221	340,868	57.9
14. Riau	2.0	43.2	30.1	0.492	360,080	579,376	38.1
01. Indragiri Hulu	2.5	45.2	35.0	0.486	322,287	423,173	46.2
02. Indragiri Ilir	4.4	44.2	27.9	0.494	216,355	397,936	36.6
03. Kepulauan Riau	6.7	40.4	27.5	0.496	267,635	511,887	37.9
04. Kampar	4.4	39.7	34.8	0.488	263,030	436,229	43.8
05. Bengkalis	7.0	47.4	27.0	0.490	218,256	492,440	36.2
71. Pekanbaru	0.0	44.0	28.5	0.503	399,982	658,506	33.0
72. Batam	—	41.8	31.9	0.485	524,080	861,748	—

Province District	Participation of women in parliament (%)	Females in senior official, managerial and technical staff positions (%)	Females in the labour force (%)	Female population (%)	Average Non-agricultural wage (thousand Rupiah)		GEM
					Female	Male	
15. Jambi	8.0	37.5	31.6	0.496	281,609	393,347	46.8
01. Kerinci	2.9	51.1	37.9	0.499	289,227	549,016	42.1
02. Bungo Tebo	0.0	40.8	30.6	0.502	365,764	370,084	41.4
03. Sarolangun Bangko	7.5	35.5	36.0	0.496	279,389	367,347	49.9
04. Batanghari	10.0	33.6	32.8	0.501	241,588	359,673	46.9
05. Tanjung Jabung	5.0	23.2	22.8	0.470	237,258	387,572	27.5
71. Jambi	12.5	44.2	29.4	0.507	283,302	389,260	51.3
16. South Sumatera	3.2	52.4	36.7	0.496	214,724	393,745	41.7
01. Ogan Komering Ulu	8.9	48.1	36.4	0.492	255,238	317,065	54.8
02. Ogan Komering Hilir	11.1	43.8	33.1	0.479	222,352	346,551	50.8
03. Muara Enim (Liot)	2.9	49.5	38.7	0.501	246,261	613,865	37.1
04. Lahat	4.5	48.2	39.3	0.490	199,821	343,164	46.5
05. Musi Rawas	6.7	67.2	38.6	0.502	190,073	313,584	44.3
06. Musi Banyuasin	13.6	46.4	39.6	0.493	172,222	311,286	47.9
07. Bangka	2.2	49.6	32.1	0.493	228,579	445,161	36.9
08. Balitung	3.3	52.8	26.8	0.496	154,627	292,514	34.3
71. Palembang	7.0	57.8	36.7	0.513	212,299	377,349	45.6
72. Pangkal Pinang	12.0	35.7	32.5	0.506	271,871	470,550	47.0
17. Bengkulu	10.0	45.5	39.5	0.491	254,621	360,075	56.5
01. South Bengkulu	0.0	22.1	41.6	0.494	275,978	333,507	36.4
02. Rejang Lebong	7.7	53.9	41.4	0.492	254,108	346,221	55.4
03. North Bengkulu	2.2	49.5	37.8	0.484	294,258	347,401	49.0
71. Bengkulu	10.0	48.1	37.0	0.496	243,105	378,176	54.3
18. Lampung	4.5	46.1	36.9	0.486	236,215	337,577	48.2
01. South Lampung	2.2	46.5	35.8	0.488	216,773	317,353	44.5
02. Central Lampung	4.4	47.3	37.2	0.483	238,614	326,293	49.6
03. North Lampung	4.4	45.3	37.9	0.489	210,791	279,242	47.7
04. West Lampung	0.0	25.1	37.1	0.478	230,513	353,236	34.1
71. Bandar Lampung	2.2	49.5	36.5	0.488	250,831	386,671	44.8
31. DKI Jakarta	7.9	34.9	34.6	0.502	376,858	593,183	46.4
71. South Jakarta	—	40.7	35.7	0.507	385,006	573,401	—
72. East Jakarta	—	39.4	30.8	0.493	403,197	596,718	—
73. Central Jakarta	—	36.6	38.6	0.506	331,177	548,953	—
74. West Jakarta	—	31.0	35.5	0.506	378,076	613,703	—
75. North Jakarta	—	23.9	35.2	0.503	353,647	612,290	—
32. West Java	7.8	36.0	32.4	0.496	283,960	384,404	47.7
01. Pandeglang	0.0	35.6	33.9	0.480	238,802	338,495	38.9
02. Lebak	6.7	31.3	24.6	0.471	287,614	328,663	42.7
03. Bogor	11.1	33.3	30.6	0.503	413,518	529,725	49.3
04. Sukabumi	6.7	31.6	31.0	0.493	163,882	298,283	38.4
05. Cianjur	11.1	51.2	34.1	0.496	193,141	280,331	53.6
06. Bandung	6.7	39.6	30.8	0.487	254,929	348,944	47.1
07. Garut	6.7	36.1	35.5	0.500	207,675	277,951	47.9
08. Tasikmalaya	6.7	47.6	39.3	0.507	157,729	293,511	47.4
09. Ciamis	0.0	44.9	37.6	0.498	282,839	292,338	47.7
10. Kuningan	4.4	39.2	34.4	0.508	176,716	278,768	43.2
11. Cirebon	8.9	34.1	33.6	0.495	164,352	270,918	45.7

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					Female	Male	
12. Majalengka	6.7	59.0	36.5	0.514	176,032	340,295	43.8
13. Sumedang	15.6	40.0	33.0	0.505	276,033	330,015	58.6
14. Indramayu	2.2	35.6	34.3	0.491	136,865	287,748	35.5
15. Subang	6.7	37.9	33.8	0.502	207,102	247,476	50.1
16. Purwakarta	2.2	54.4	34.9	0.483	252,820	340,065	46.2
17. Karawang	4.4	31.0	27.1	0.506	261,975	348,231	36.7
18. Bekasi	6.7	24.4	18.6	0.476	265,275	379,905	28.9
19. Tangerang	2.2	25.4	30.7	0.498	289,109	431,591	32.5
20. Serang	6.7	22.2	32.4	0.493	223,425	339,464	36.8
71. Bogor	8.9	33.0	28.6	0.493	433,728	473,526	48.9
72. Sukabumi	6.7	50.9	34.8	0.516	226,743	353,974	47.2
73. Bandung	8.9	39.3	35.5	0.503	285,359	389,341	51.9
74. Cirebon	0.0	47.1	35.9	0.501	215,996	387,849	38.2
75. Tangerang	4.4	31.8	32.8	0.504	330,742	478,902	40.6
76. Bekasi	15.6	50.4	27.2	0.486	310,186	418,933	54.9
33. Central Java	6.7	44.7	40.8	0.504	186,729	294,662	51.2
01. Cilacap	11.1	42.9	37.1	0.499	155,877	302,278	50.2
02. Banyumas	8.9	45.0	37.9	0.498	182,911	287,259	52.4
03. Purbalingga	8.9	46.4	38.3	0.493	101,745	266,323	44.2
04. Banjarnegara	4.4	50.0	37.9	0.504	206,625	235,461	51.6
05. Kebumen	6.7	45.5	40.0	0.500	152,911	277,234	49.5
06. Purworejo	4.4	45.2	40.2	0.492	178,616	288,244	49.5
07. Wonosobo	8.9	60.8	36.9	0.486	180,843	242,910	53.6
08. Magelang	2.2	50.9	44.6	0.513	202,844	300,649	49.1
09. Boyolali	2.2	33.4	45.8	0.508	196,959	262,227	47.1
10. Klaten	8.9	51.5	46.0	0.516	191,058	273,352	58.0
11. Sukoharjo	8.9	35.9	42.6	0.512	213,968	294,675	54.4
12. Wonogiri	8.9	41.2	40.4	0.507	217,889	297,123	54.9
13. Karanganyar	9.1	46.5	45.6	0.515	150,733	270,047	54.7
14. Sragen	6.7	42.9	42.4	0.512	169,103	274,019	50.9
15. Grobogan	4.4	36.8	39.7	0.502	214,566	303,878	48.0
16. Blora	2.2	51.6	39.9	0.503	195,007	281,945	46.7
17. Rembang	4.4	41.2	40.9	0.503	199,803	353,504	46.8
18. Pati	6.7	57.7	41.5	0.516	199,168	332,289	49.9
19. Kudus	11.1	55.7	45.5	0.508	158,917	273,342	57.7
20. Jepara	2.2	30.3	39.6	0.499	161,456	329,257	36.9
21. Demak	0.0	38.0	40.7	0.481	182,767	280,821	43.6
22. Semarang	6.7	49.4	43.7	0.511	185,245	311,279	52.6
23. Temanggung	2.2	63.8	40.0	0.505	216,537	211,897	49.4
24. Kendal	6.7	42.4	39.2	0.502	213,345	267,183	53.6
25. Batang	4.4	41.0	38.7	0.515	119,400	216,305	43.1
26. Pekalongan	11.1	44.6	39.1	0.502	130,387	226,893	52.8
27. Pemasang	0.0	48.3	38.0	0.503	171,708	240,483	43.1
28. Tegal	4.4	50.6	37.5	0.500	186,976	350,946	44.3
29. Brebes	8.9	41.7	40.4	0.507	156,418	296,238	49.6
71. Magelang	12.0	49.5	42.4	0.521	215,125	310,497	59.4
72. Surakarta	3.3	40.0	45.0	0.508	245,446	365,621	49.9
73. Salatiga	4.0	44.7	45.7	0.520	319,152	373,629	54.8
74. Semarang	16.7	36.6	43.6	0.515	225,163	344,644	61.1
75. Pekalongan	6.7	54.7	38.0	0.504	201,075	308,674	49.7
76. Tegal	2.2	50.0	39.8	0.498	170,577	331,118	43.5
34. D. I. Yogyakarta	7.8	46.7	45.6	0.499	232,346	308,126	58.8
01. Kulon Progo	7.5	54.3	42.5	0.495	230,590	266,540	57.8
02. Bantul	6.7	46.0	45.2	0.496	174,421	262,176	55.7
03. Gunung Kidul	6.7	76.4	49.8	0.498	283,866	328,764	47.1
04. Sleman	6.7	37.2	43.6	0.498	264,616	329,456	55.8
71. Yogyakarta	2.5	37.3	46.0	0.512	219,450	332,107	48.6

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					Female	Male	
35. East Java	11.1	45.9	39.1	0.508	197,069	314,813	54.4
01. Pacitan	6.7	31.2	45.0	0.508	207,003	262,327	51.6
02. Ponorogo	6.7	56.1	42.2	0.516	184,555	261,355	52.4
03. Trenggalek	4.4	55.2	43.5	0.504	191,065	218,392	53.9
04. Tulungagung	6.7	45.5	41.1	0.519	161,312	268,651	49.8
05. Blitar	4.4	58.2	36.8	0.507	198,085	253,000	48.7
06. Kediri	2.2	44.6	39.0	0.499	162,992	252,427	45.0
07. Malang	2.2	46.6	36.9	0.498	147,499	217,604	44.8
08. Lumajang	6.7	36.4	35.4	0.512	141,035	231,619	43.6
09. Jember	6.7	54.4	37.1	0.520	157,583	337,370	41.9
10. Banyuwangi	6.7	34.2	38.7	0.510	207,621	267,416	49.5
11. Bondowoso	4.4	30.9	38.9	0.513	135,584	312,163	35.6
12. Situbondo	0.0	55.3	38.6	0.513	169,399	248,346	42.3
13. Probolinggo	0.0	36.7	37.3	0.501	118,414	274,129	32.2
14. Pasuruan	4.4	49.9	39.0	0.502	164,431	253,601	47.7
15. Sidoarjo	4.4	50.9	37.7	0.514	209,481	383,986	44.1
16. Mojokerto	4.4	33.9	38.7	0.511	177,618	272,949	43.8
17. Jombang	6.7	38.8	37.5	0.508	199,108	283,326	49.0
18. Nganjuk	2.2	50.4	39.0	0.513	216,175	339,773	44.3
19. Madiun	2.2	46.5	39.2	0.514	193,341	256,535	47.5
20. Magetan	0.0	48.4	44.4	0.504	195,553	288,783	46.6
21. Ngawi	6.7	35.7	37.1	0.508	153,789	243,784	45.8
22. Bojonegoro	6.7	28.7	31.1	0.482	184,463	292,451	39.6
23. Tuban	6.7	40.2	38.9	0.502	151,698	334,553	43.5
24. Lamongan	0.0	49.5	38.8	0.507	201,585	303,484	42.4
25. Gresik	4.4	56.3	36.1	0.487	194,282	349,279	44.2
26. Bangkalan	4.4	42.8	42.8	0.521	246,823	342,704	48.8
27. Sampang	0.0	47.6	45.0	0.523	227,280	307,957	45.4
28. Pamekasan	4.5	36.4	45.3	0.509	111,773	251,351	42.4
29. Sumenep	4.4	52.2	46.6	0.527	163,887	314,682	48.1
71. Kediri	6.7	54.6	42.0	0.513	221,165	337,239	52.5
72. Blitar	4.0	53.7	38.9	0.500	188,920	309,119	47.2
73. Malang	8.9	47.5	41.3	0.510	212,863	309,104	55.7
74. Probolinggo	3.3	44.5	34.6	0.506	268,922	324,715	47.2
75. Pasuruan	3.3	35.7	36.3	0.526	179,292	276,264	40.3
76. Mojokerto	4.0	58.7	37.9	0.501	208,744	331,073	45.4
77. Madiun	0.0	52.1	43.0	0.514	222,819	397,644	42.5
78. Surabaya	6.7	43.5	37.8	0.502	252,119	411,473	49.1
51. Bali	6.1	35.5	45.4	0.500	229,062	387,268	50.5
01. Jembrana	0.0	41.9	43.8	0.490	187,334	313,994	44.5
02. Tabanan	0.0	49.8	45.8	0.509	221,810	350,514	46.9
03. Badung	5.7	45.5	39.1	0.483	274,104	433,292	51.3
04. Gianyar	5.7	17.3	45.0	0.490	178,887	342,778	37.2
05. Klungkung	8.0	43.5	46.8	0.518	198,767	317,486	55.1
06. Bangli	0.0	26.0	47.6	0.489	212,969	323,905	41.3
07. Karangasem	2.9	34.0	48.5	0.496	200,203	324,026	47.8
08. Buleleng	2.2	31.3	47.4	0.514	148,241	334,117	39.4
71. Denpasar	0.0	39.2	44.0	0.502	278,170	498,382	42.9
52. West Nusa Tenggara	6.1	37.2	42.9	0.519	177,743	308,551	46.2
01. West Lombok	7.5	33.2	42.0	0.518	121,121	240,938	43.1
02. Central Lombok	7.5	23.9	47.3	0.527	126,307	254,930	40.5
03. East Lombok	7.3	41.5	41.7	0.541	149,541	313,715	43.3
04. Sumbawa	5.3	33.7	41.8	0.492	281,301	425,758	47.7
05. Dompu	0.0	39.3	42.3	0.497	263,689	320,863	44.8
06. Bima	0.0	43.0	42.7	0.507	232,913	345,224	43.4
71. Mataram	0.0	37.7	39.0	0.505	214,326	342,454	39.6

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					Female	Male	
53. East Nusa Tenggara	2.1	35.7	43.0	0.507	233,578	304,302	46.4
01. West Sumba	0.0	37.5	42.9	0.497	261,669	364,810	34.4
02. East Sumba	0.0	33.9	40.1	0.489	193,353	278,228	40.7
03. Kupang	5.0	30.6	36.6	0.493	293,749	303,580	47.1
04. South Central Timor	5.7	30.5	32.7	0.494	189,186	292,008	34.8
05. North Central Timor	0.0	43.2	40.1	0.496	185,982	327,249	35.3
06. Belu	0.0	36.9	34.3	0.497	190,920	231,459	35.6
07. Alor	0.0	29.0	42.6	0.513	184,392	241,315	33.5
08. East Flores	0.0	35.2	50.2	0.540	176,736	237,699	40.8
09. Sikka	6.7	45.0	47.9	0.532	183,709	273,853	43.8
10. Ende	3.3	39.9	54.9	0.536	330,096	338,486	46.5
11. Ngada	0.0	42.6	48.4	0.522	297,139	351,901	47.4
12. Manggarai	0.0	26.2	48.7	0.507	222,080	301,198	41.1
71. Kupang	10.0	38.8	30.6	0.483	282,294	347,950	52.6
61. West Kalimantan	6.3	43.2	39.8	0.490	288,188	395,065	52.2
01. Sambas	0.0	40.7	44.3	0.488	237,586	356,182	45.0
02. Pontianak	0.0	51.5	37.8	0.491	301,483	382,304	44.7
03. Sanggau	0.0	30.2	39.3	0.489	326,583	362,308	42.0
04. Ketapang	0.0	51.3	36.7	0.488	295,192	333,704	45.6
05. Sintang	0.0	33.4	42.1	0.491	224,127	418,797	38.1
06. Kapuas Hulu	0.0	31.2	42.9	0.494	219,415	434,743	36.5
71. Pontianak	0.0	41.2	33.2	0.496	302,038	442,698	38.7
62. Central Kalimantan	2.5	46.3	34.9	0.488	301,149	447,841	43.3
01. West Kotawaringin	0.0	30.9	29.1	0.494	264,713	493,721	27.5
02. East Kotawaringin	3.3	42.7	28.5	0.481	302,610	453,425	39.7
03. Kapuas	2.2	51.3	39.9	0.489	208,598	394,915	43.2
04. South Barito	4.0	58.8	39.6	0.496	299,243	382,666	49.5
05. North Barito	0.0	43.3	36.9	0.494	430,314	452,848	45.7
71. Palangka Raya	4.0	49.5	33.5	0.484	383,318	471,555	49.0
63. South Kalimantan	8.7	47.1	41.1	0.505	281,673	395,595	55.1
01. Tanah Laut	3.8	52.9	38.2	0.485	246,288	361,682	48.4
02. Kota Baru	2.5	33.3	38.1	0.496	301,550	425,950	43.2
03. Banjar	5.9	57.4	41.5	0.503	259,858	379,175	51.3
04. Barito Kuala	3.3	50.0	43.6	0.505	311,973	378,802	52.0
05. Tapin	0.0	47.9	42.5	0.520	251,773	351,042	44.7
06. South Hulu Sungai	4.2	57.7	44.0	0.519	275,105	326,880	52.7
07. Central Hulu Sungai	10.0	43.0	45.0	0.512	344,059	382,589	59.7
08. North Hulu Sungai	3.3	46.6	47.3	0.518	221,234	289,635	51.9
09. Tabalong	0.0	47.2	44.7	0.515	257,685	387,923	45.2
71. Banjarmasin	2.2	44.0	33.0	0.499	300,742	430,851	42.6
64. East Kalimantan	12.5	39.2	31.0	0.491	300,643	505,083	49.3
01. Pasir	3.3	39.5	25.5	0.467	242,879	420,369	35.5
02. Kutai	2.2	37.3	31.5	0.497	382,819	578,563	38.6
03. Berau	0.0	43.9	32.7	0.485	298,868	475,896	37.8
04. Bulongan	3.3	25.6	32.3	0.471	214,015	387,356	34.5
71. Balikpapan	13.3	44.2	28.5	0.507	315,112	555,124	47.3
72. Samarinda	6.7	40.9	34.0	0.493	265,773	424,088	46.5

Province District	Participation of women in parliament (%)	Females in senior official, managerial and technical staff positions (%)	Females in the labour force (%)	Female population (%)	Average Non-agricultural wage (thousand Rupiah)		GEM
					Female	Male	
71. North Sulawesi	7.5	54.9	28.5	0.496	303,888	439,737	45.1
01. Gorontalo	7.0	60.0	26.3	0.506	309,844	316,076	46.5
02. Bolaang Mongondow	7.5	42.7	24.5	0.483	285,398	383,333	43.5
03. Minahasa	17.8	62.6	28.5	0.484	276,143	359,913	56.6
04. Sangihe Talaud	7.4	60.5	33.0	0.495	341,993	345,844	52.8
71. Gorontalo	4.2	60.3	32.1	0.519	278,831	308,558	46.3
72. Manado	7.5	49.3	33.5	0.509	340,873	621,112	44.8
73. Bitung	8.0	32.0	23.4	0.477	200,274	369,826	35.2
72. Central Sulawesi	7.5	47.4	33.7	0.494	250,880	342,423	50.0
01. Luwuk Banggai	0.0	50.0	37.6	0.489	214,937	291,982	43.5
02. Poso	5.0	44.8	37.6	0.495	241,823	368,005	47.3
03. Donggala	6.8	52.5	31.5	0.495	257,120	316,434	49.1
04. Bual Toli-Toli	6.7	30.5	25.0	0.489	198,171	272,546	37.4
05. Kodya Palu	3.3	48.6	33.6	0.501	284,624	398,168	44.6
73. South Sulawesi	3.8	47.7	31.4	0.513	321,129	401,885	43.9
01. Selayar	4.0	53.2	34.4	0.528	241,118	315,555	44.8
02. Bulukumba	5.7	38.7	30.3	0.521	353,668	404,656	44.5
03. Bantaeng	4.0	46.5	33.7	0.522	299,941	360,718	45.9
04. Jeneponto	2.9	46.6	36.2	0.521	312,591	396,058	45.5
05. Takalar	6.7	51.8	31.8	0.511	301,137	311,998	51.1
06. Gowa	5.3	56.8	29.2	0.493	263,616	265,023	48.5
07. Sinjai	3.3	54.5	26.9	0.521	342,781	358,132	42.2
08. Maros	3.3	41.9	29.0	0.517	229,411	325,644	38.1
09. Pangkep	6.7	54.4	23.9	0.519	307,016	421,404	39.1
10. Barru	8.0	61.8	23.8	0.526	288,425	323,210	42.1
11. Bone	8.9	55.4	28.6	0.525	357,087	367,654	49.5
12. Soppeng	3.3	60.0	28.1	0.550	304,641	341,590	39.9
13. Wajo	12.5	50.8	30.4	0.532	185,133	339,675	45.1
14. Sidenreng Rappang	0.0	45.9	27.1	0.520	215,478	303,445	33.0
15. Pinrang	2.9	48.1	28.8	0.515	260,494	382,662	38.1
16. Enrekang	8.0	50.0	35.4	0.507	373,463	379,097	55.3
17. Luwu	2.9	48.7	31.5	0.496	412,346	593,099	42.2
18. Tana Toraja	5.0	38.4	35.9	0.480	309,879	341,248	51.3
19. Polewali Mamasa	10.0	51.9	38.5	0.525	232,068	303,939	54.6
20. Majene	4.2	49.0	32.1	0.516	338,548	412,576	45.4
21. Mamuju	6.7	40.7	30.0	0.483	310,617	339,333	50.1
71. Ujung Pandang	7.0	43.0	33.1	0.512	348,387	460,051	48.2
72. Pare Pare	8.0	49.0	30.6	0.514	366,701	380,100	51.5
74. South East Sulawesi	2.5	40.2	36.5	0.501	300,875	364,137	46.0
01. Buton	7.5	47.9	40.5	0.510	337,191	390,524	54.9
02. Muna	10.0	33.2	43.1	0.501	262,778	360,971	53.2
03. Kendari	4.4	30.6	36.9	0.492	244,530	279,914	46.4
04. Kolaka	6.7	40.6	26.0	0.496	347,249	382,125	45.0
71. Kendari	16.0	44.7	31.8	0.508	292,641	401,877	56.3
81. Maluku	7.5	55.3	35.0	0.500	332,968	394,393	52.7
01. South East Maluku	3.1	63.0	36.1	0.505	243,695	388,620	41.6
02. Central Maluku	2.2	62.3	34.9	0.502	311,298	317,012	46.8
03. North Maluku	8.9	50.6	34.1	0.495	343,188	475,257	52.1
04. Central Halmahera	0.0	37.5	33.0	0.488	304,789	348,088	42.1
71. Ambon	8.6	52.9	38.0	0.508	381,112	400,068	57.4

Province District	Participation of women in parliament (%)	Females in senior official, managerial and technical staff positions (%)	Females in the labour force (%)	Female population (%)	Average Non-agricultural wage (thousand Rupiah)		GEM
					Female	Male	
82. Irian Jaya	2.7	34.2	41.4	0.484	490,128	638,212	47.7
01. Merauke	5.7	47.9	41.7	0.484	513,490	748,420	53.7
02. Jaya Wijaya	2.5	20.1	49.8	0.489	478,213	512,618	42.1
03. Jaya Pura	12.0	36.7	30.6	0.490	462,684	572,099	53.3
04. Paniai	7.4	47.7	47.4	0.475	581,135	604,515	50.0
05. Fak Fak	0.0	29.1	27.7	0.475	531,287	932,575	28.2
06. Sorong	3.3	25.6	35.8	0.486	471,043	689,619	39.6
07. Manokwari	8.0	24.3	38.1	0.470	287,333	523,810	43.8
08. Yapen Waropen	0.0	25.8	34.7	0.489	447,344	546,383	36.5
09. Biak Numfor	4.0	29.8	34.1	0.493	411,038	513,152	43.6
71. Jaya Pura	3.3	42.0	26.6	0.486	539,078	616,222	43.6

Note:

1. The number before each province or district is the official area code. District refers to both regency (kabupaten) and city (kota). Where two districts have the same name, the one with a code number above 70 is a city.

Source: BPS special tabulation

10 Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) by district, 2002

Province District	Participation of women in parliament (%)	Females in the labour force (%)	Female population (%)	Average Non-agricultural wage (thousand Rupiah)		GEM	GEM ranking
				Female	Male		
11. Nangroe Aceh Darussalam	9.1	49.6	49.6	527.3	975.3	55.5	5
01. Simeulue	0.0	48.8	47.5	539.0	807.1	37.0	266
02. Aceh Singkil	0.0	48.4	48.8	512.0	607.9	42.8	196
03. South Aceh	0.0	48.3	50.6	430.9	774.9	44.4	167
04. South East Aceh	0.0	49.0	48.8	660.1	947.8	43.7	183
05. East Aceh	0.0	48.4	50.1	366.2	692.9	44.0	176
06. Central Aceh	0.0	48.1	48.5	515.5	797.3	48.3	98
07. West Aceh	2.5	50.2	50.0	475.7	994.1	44.6	163
08. Aceh Besar	0.0	48.8	49.5	532.0	840.7	46.5	126
09. Pidie	5.0	52.2	49.9	574.0	828.7	54.1	35
10. Bireuen	0.0	52.9	50.3	447.3	704.4	59.6	8
11. North Aceh	4.4	46.6	48.1	358.4	1,217.4	40.0	236
71. Banda Aceh	0.0	53.3	52.6	592.8	925.1	49.7	79
72. Sabang	5.0	48.8	50.3	630.6	1,642.3	45.0	156
12. North Sumatera	3.5	41.3	49.5	412.0	685.6	48.4	17
01. Nias	8.9	48.2	48.4	648.3	605.9	59.3	10
02. Mandailing Natal	2.9	46.4	50.5	315.0	545.7	46.9	121
03. South Tapanuli	8.9	47.6	49.7	843.8	852.3	61.6	3
04. Central Tapanuli	3.3	43.2	50.6	419.8	743.2	46.3	132
05. North Tapanuli	7.5	51.9	50.8	375.6	747.4	51.3	61
06. Toba Samosir	0.0	49.3	48.9	965.4	867.7	52.5	48
07. Labuhan Batu	0.0	36.9	49.6	272.1	664.4	35.5	279
08. Asahan	2.3	36.5	49.2	222.5	699.8	31.8	306
09. Simalungun	8.9	44.3	49.3	261.5	482.8	52.0	55
10. Dairi	3.3	49.1	50.7	599.1	711.3	53.4	41
11. Karo	0.0	49.0	51.2	445.2	646.2	46.0	134
12. Deli Serdang	2.3	38.9	49.1	363.4	606.6	45.5	145
13. Langkat	4.4	35.6	49.0	379.3	620.7	45.9	137
71. Sibolga	5.0	32.6	49.3	456.3	773.3	41.9	204
72. Tanjung Balai	0.0	33.1	50.9	536.2	813.2	37.7	260
73. Pematang Siantar	6.9	44.0	50.2	473.2	655.1	57.2	15
74. Tebing Tinggi	4.0	35.8	51.0	306.3	581.7	41.7	208
75. Medan	4.4	36.2	49.6	499.6	785.1	47.6	112
76. Binjai	3.3	40.1	50.9	409.9	627.5	48.0	104
13. West Sumatera	9.1	39.3	51.1	549.9	767.8	54.2	8
01. Kepulauan Mentawai	0.0	22.7	47.6	331.3	464.2	16.8	334
02. Pesisir Selatan	2.5	33.8	48.9	596.0	684.9	47.6	111
03. Solok	2.5	40.4	51.1	591.2	605.4	49.4	83
04. Sawah Lunto/Sijunjung	8.6	35.1	49.6	608.8	590.5	56.2	23
05. Tanah Datar	0.0	38.7	53.4	471.6	639.3	44.2	170
06. Padang Pariaman	2.2	40.3	52.1	414.2	654.8	43.5	188
07. Agam	0.0	42.8	52.6	341.7	808.7	35.2	280
08. Limapuluh Koto	5.7	41.9	50.5	369.5	527.2	51.0	66
09. Pasaman	2.2	42.1	50.7	394.6	615.3	45.1	153
71. Padang	4.4	38.6	51.3	672.2	856.8	51.6	60
72. Solok	0.0	32.3	53.0	509.0	652.9	40.5	228
73. Sawah Lunto	0.0	36.2	51.9	387.7	911.4	31.8	305
74. Padang Panjang	10.0	40.7	52.2	464.0	819.0	53.0	44
75. Bukit Tinggi	15.0	42.3	51.2	400.5	698.5	60.1	6
76. Payakumbuh	12.0	40.0	50.9	435.3	651.2	56.7	16

Province District	Participation of women in parliament (%)	Females in the labour force (%)	Female population (%)	Average Non-agricultural wage (thousand Rupiah)		GEM	GEM ranking
				Female	Male		
14. Riau	1.8	31.3	49.6	708.0	1,034.3	40.4	28
01. Kuantan Sengingi	3.3	30.7	48.8	483.9	621.1	44.5	165
02. Indragiri Hulu	5.0	28.9	48.4	485.3	674.2	43.1	194
03. Indragiri Hilir	4.4	27.2	49.8	160.0	808.7	22.5	328
04. Pelalawan	0.0	26.2	47.7	530.4	963.3	30.4	312
05. Siak	7.1	30.0	49.8	720.3	966.0	47.7	109
06. Kampar	8.9	29.7	48.0	378.3	745.4	43.9	180
07. Rokan Hulu	6.7	33.3	49.4	464.0	840.0	44.2	169
08. Bengkalis	20.0	27.9	48.6	520.5	1,285.6	49.4	84
09. Rokan Hilir	0.0	20.3	48.3	327.2	952.7	10.3	336
10. Kepulauan Riau	5.6	26.8	49.2	543.3	903.8	39.9	238
11. Karimun	8.0	28.7	48.0	437.0	828.8	41.1	219
12. Natuna	5.0	21.7	47.4	380.4	655.6	34.9	284
71. Pekanbaru	0.0	29.1	49.8	688.5	1,086.0	35.2	281
72. Batam	6.7	51.2	56.2	801.5	1,256.4	50.5	71
73. Dumai	0.0	24.6	48.0	528.4	940.1	30.7	310
15. Jambi	8.9	33.2	49.3	412.0	728.6	46.8	21
01. Kerinci	2.9	42.8	50.0	306.5	733.5	41.6	214
02. Merangin	5.0	29.7	48.8	499.7	717.5	41.6	213
03. Sarolangun	4.0	40.7	50.0	212.5	627.5	37.3	263
04. Batanghari	5.0	32.7	50.0	379.5	637.6	30.8	308
05. Muara Jambi	10.0	35.7	48.1	402.9	632.7	54.3	33
06. East Tanjung Jabung	6.7	26.1	47.7	250.9	565.9	33.4	296
07. West Tanjung Jabung	7.5	24.9	48.7	498.8	705.8	33.8	292
08. Tebo	3.3	30.8	48.5	342.7	773.2	34.7	285
09. Bungo	2.5	30.4	49.4	481.6	699.4	30.0	314
71. Jambi	10.0	32.4	50.7	423.3	785.1	46.6	125
16. South Sumatera	14.7	39.5	49.7	392.5	738.4	56.9	3
01. Ogan Komering Ulu	8.9	43.2	48.7	439.7	689.7	56.6	17
02. Ogan Komering Hilir	8.9	39.1	49.3	448.0	525.8	56.5	18
03. Muara Enim (Liot)	2.2	38.8	49.2	279.2	757.0	33.3	298
04. Lahat	6.7	41.5	47.9	327.2	699.4	48.4	94
05. Musi Rawas	6.7	40.1	51.3	277.0	628.7	43.2	192
06. Musi Banyuasin	11.1	37.5	49.4	288.0	675.5	47.0	119
71. Palembang	6.8	36.6	51.7	417.3	800.9	45.3	149
17. Bengkulu	6.7	40.9	48.8	462.8	770.4	51.1	11
01. South Bengkulu	0.0	43.6	49.1	459.7	864.8	38.5	253
02. Rejang Lebong	7.5	43.7	48.4	358.4	847.8	49.6	82
03. North Bengkulu	2.2	36.9	48.2	267.8	598.9	37.2	264
71. Bengkulu	10.0	38.2	49.9	514.8	785.8	53.9	36
18. Lampung	6.7	35.7	48.6	343.5	520.9	50.3	14
01. West Lampung	0.0	34.3	47.6	459.1	305.0	46.0	136
02. Tanggamus	2.2	35.4	48.8	255.1	672.8	35.0	283
03. South Lampung	2.2	37.5	47.9	253.6	421.6	45.0	158
04. East Lampung	0.0	35.1	49.6	250.9	477.3	36.4	274
05. Central Lampung	4.4	36.2	48.3	264.2	480.1	44.6	164
06. North Lampung	6.7	38.1	49.8	528.4	626.9	53.7	38
07. Way Kanan	2.3	38.1	46.6	280.2	366.1	48.5	91
08. Tulang Bawang	2.5	31.7	47.8	271.9	353.6	44.5	166
71. Bandar Lampung	2.2	35.4	49.9	416.4	578.6	45.7	140
72. Metro	12.0	30.9	50.0	395.9	595.2	52.6	47

Province District	Participation of women in parliament (%)	Females in the labour force (%)	Female population (%)	Average Non-agricultural wage (thousand Rupiah)		GEM	GEM ranking
				Female	Male		
19. Bangka Belitung	4.4	31.0	49.1	362.1	723.1	38.9	29
01. Bangka	4.4	30.7	49.3	420.2	760.2	33.2	299
02. Belitung	3.3	31.0	47.8	287.2	552.9	38.4	254
71. Pangkal Pinang	4.5	32.5	50.5	363.8	753.0	38.8	249
31. DKI Jakarta	7.1	36.6	50.2	675.8	978.0	50.3	13
71. South Jakarta	-	36.0	49.9	621.4	981.1	-	
72. East Jakarta	-	36.1	50.2	671.0	1,014.4	-	
73. Central Jakarta	-	40.3	51.4	633.3	910.4	-	
74. West Jakarta	-	35.6	49.9	779.7	955.1	-	
75. North Jakarta	-	37.5	50.3	621.2	985.9	-	
32. West Java	3.0	33.1	49.3	488.2	664.7	43.6	24
01. Bogor	13.3	27.9	48.1	489.1	597.9	54.7	29
02. Sukabumi	6.7	31.1	49.8	332.0	496.8	39.8	241
03. Cianjur	13.3	34.3	47.7	311.0	494.1	56.4	20
04. Bandung	6.7	34.0	48.8	538.4	666.0	41.9	206
05. Garut	6.7	35.9	49.6	276.0	579.7	40.5	230
06. Tasikmalaya	6.7	36.1	49.2	230.9	491.0	44.1	173
07. Ciamis	0.0	37.9	51.3	268.7	448.1	41.6	211
08. Kuningan	4.4	35.7	50.5	294.5	518.4	44.1	171
09. Cirebon	8.9	34.2	49.6	242.8	492.0	32.0	304
10. Majalengka	6.7	37.0	50.2	230.9	477.0	42.7	197
11. Sumedang	8.9	36.0	49.2	490.2	567.0	56.4	19
12. Indramayu	2.2	35.2	50.3	318.9	731.8	35.7	278
13. Subang	11.1	33.7	50.9	354.0	474.9	52.3	50
14. Purwakarta	6.7	31.5	49.6	465.0	613.6	45.1	152
15. Karawang	4.4	27.7	49.9	495.9	654.4	40.7	225
16. Bekasi	6.7	25.3	48.0	601.4	797.0	43.9	182
71. Bogor	6.7	32.8	50.8	423.7	791.4	39.9	239
72. Sukabumi	10.0	25.8	49.5	418.2	583.8	41.9	205
73. Bandung	8.9	35.3	49.6	512.7	792.8	52.1	54
74. Cirebon	0.0	35.9	51.3	358.3	628.4	33.6	293
75. Bekasi	13.3	31.5	48.4	740.9	882.5	56.3	22
76. Depok	8.9	30.3	48.9	620.9	867.6	48.1	103
33. Central Java	6.3	40.6	50.2	313.1	500.0	51.0	12
01. Cilacap	13.6	39.6	50.0	278.5	499.5	52.6	46
02. Banyumas	8.9	37.7	49.9	209.9	489.6	46.2	133
03. Purbalingga	11.1	38.4	50.6	514.1	359.4	63.5	2
04. Banjarnegara	4.4	37.9	50.3	196.1	346.6	39.2	247
05. Kebumen	6.7	39.2	50.4	237.4	506.4	46.4	130
06. Purworejo	4.4	39.5	50.0	278.1	483.7	48.8	90
07. Wonosobo	8.9	37.3	48.8	249.2	447.5	51.2	64
08. Magelang	8.9	42.4	50.4	293.5	483.4	54.2	34
09. Boyolali	2.2	44.2	49.8	259.5	421.3	46.9	123
10. Klaten	15.6	43.5	50.2	289.9	432.3	64.7	1
11. Sukoharjo	6.7	43.6	50.4	349.5	529.6	53.9	37
12. Wonogiri	8.9	44.4	51.4	336.0	484.3	56.3	21
13. Karanganyar	13.3	43.1	50.0	342.1	590.1	61.2	5
14. Sragen	6.8	44.3	50.0	279.3	476.8	53.6	39
15. Grobogan	6.7	38.1	50.5	299.8	504.3	43.5	187
16. Blora	0.0	40.9	49.8	313.7	505.1	43.6	186
17. Rembang	4.4	36.3	49.8	223.4	508.9	40.0	235
18. Pati	6.7	39.8	49.6	300.9	511.0	51.0	67
19. Kudus	11.1	44.5	52.0	293.2	548.8	53.1	43
20. Jepara	2.3	39.4	48.7	229.7	499.0	38.0	256
21. Demak	2.3	40.5	50.3	319.3	572.6	40.7	224

Province District	Participation of women in parliament (%)	Females in the labour force (%)	Female population (%)	Average Non-agricultural wage (thousand Rupiah)		GEM	GEM ranking
				Female	Male		
22. Semarang	4.4	43.4	50.4	420.7	533.3	53.2	42
23. Temanggung	2.3	41.1	50.1	285.1	545.6	44.7	162
24. Kendal	6.7	40.3	50.9	316.4	465.6	52.0	56
25. Batang	6.7	37.7	50.9	209.0	446.9	41.1	218
26. Pekalongan	11.1	39.7	50.5	351.1	416.1	58.1	13
27. Pemalang	0.0	37.8	49.5	310.8	577.4	37.1	265
28. Tegal	4.4	40.6	50.2	258.5	442.0	47.7	108
29. Brebes	8.9	41.1	49.9	293.6	376.3	55.9	24
71. Magelang	12.0	42.0	53.0	361.8	543.2	55.1	28
72. Surakarta	2.2	43.6	52.1	297.7	461.8	48.3	99
73. Salatiga	4.0	43.7	50.6	629.3	539.8	57.5	14
74. Semarang	11.1	40.4	49.7	414.9	610.0	59.7	7
75. Pekalongan	6.7	36.7	50.7	308.2	503.7	48.3	96
76. Tegal	3.3	39.7	50.2	311.4	524.1	47.1	117
34. D. I. Yogyakarta	9.1	44.4	50.3	308.2	490.7	56.1	4
01. Kulon Progo	5.0	44.7	51.7	227.7	371.0	48.5	93
02. Bantul	6.7	43.6	49.7	250.7	434.9	49.1	86
03. Gunung Kidul	6.7	47.0	51.6	275.7	440.7	51.7	58
04. Sleman	8.9	43.0	48.4	358.0	568.4	58.6	11
71. Yogyakarta	2.5	43.7	52.7	341.1	515.3	43.2	193
35. East Java	11.0	39.1	50.9	376.7	553.4	54.9	7
01. Pacitan	6.7	46.2	52.0	165.3	464.1	41.7	209
02. Ponorogo	0.0	41.4	51.1	317.2	441.9	45.0	154
03. Trenggalek	6.7	40.8	49.9	209.9	417.4	47.1	116
04. Tulungagung	6.7	41.7	51.8	211.1	473.9	45.6	143
05. Blitar	4.4	37.5	51.1	259.2	406.3	48.2	100
06. Kediri	2.2	39.7	50.2	248.3	550.1	40.5	229
07. Malang	11.1	38.8	50.6	291.6	496.7	53.5	40
08. Lumajang	11.1	39.7	51.5	205.7	470.5	47.2	115
09. Jember	4.4	36.1	51.3	242.7	479.7	39.4	244
10. Banyuwangi	6.7	38.6	50.5	151.9	468.6	38.0	257
11. Bondowoso	2.2	39.1	50.6	223.0	371.2	39.6	242
12. Situbondo	0.0	36.2	51.6	239.1	426.9	32.4	302
13. Probolinggo	0.0	36.2	50.5	226.3	814.1	27.7	319
14. Pasuruan	4.4	39.4	51.4	361.1	480.7	47.6	110
15. Sidoarjo	4.4	37.6	50.5	478.9	685.8	41.6	212
16. Mojokerto	6.7	39.2	50.5	336.9	537.8	51.6	59
17. Jombang	2.3	36.4	50.5	238.6	500.7	37.4	262
18. Nganjuk	2.2	36.7	50.4	285.1	415.2	45.2	151
19. Madiun	2.2	35.3	49.9	367.0	506.7	43.9	179
20. Magetan	0.0	42.3	51.6	362.9	513.6	45.0	155
21. Ngawi	8.9	36.1	50.2	265.5	525.7	47.0	120
22. Bojonegoro	4.4	36.7	50.7	277.9	468.2	40.9	221
23. Tuban	4.4	41.0	51.2	195.2	451.4	34.0	290
24. Lamongan	2.2	38.4	51.1	307.9	548.1	41.8	207
25. Gresik	2.2	39.6	49.8	378.3	624.0	46.3	131
26. Bangkalan	4.4	41.8	51.3	358.0	758.8	43.9	181
27. Sampang	0.0	43.0	51.8	252.9	512.4	30.8	309
28. Pamekasan	0.0	43.5	52.0	214.7	323.0	38.5	252
29. Sumenep	2.2	44.2	53.2	303.2	490.9	30.5	311
71. Kediri	6.7	43.1	52.2	585.2	592.2	58.2	12
72. Blitar	4.0	41.8	51.9	238.7	455.9	45.8	139
73. Malang	6.7	40.5	51.0	369.3	554.7	52.4	49
74. Probolinggo	6.7	33.6	51.3	362.0	528.6	48.3	97
75. Pasuruan	6.7	34.9	50.8	350.2	492.0	50.0	76
76. Mojokerto	4.0	36.9	50.8	441.8	625.7	46.5	128
77. Madiun	4.0	41.2	50.5	378.1	573.7	49.7	80
78. Surabaya	6.7	38.6	50.5	480.6	647.5	51.2	63

Province District	Participation of women in parliament (%)	Females in the labour force (%)	Female population (%)	Average Non-agricultural wage (thousand Rupiah)		GEM	GEM ranking
				Female	Male		
36. Banten	9.3	31.8	49.1	602.8	873.5	48.6	16
01. Pandeglang	2.2	34.9	48.7	252.9	554.4	33.6	294
02. Lebak	6.7	32.1	48.7	427.5	477.5	45.3	148
03. Tangerang	2.2	32.0	49.1	648.9	955.8	39.2	246
04. Serang	6.7	28.9	48.1	406.8	786.1	38.7	251
71. Tangerang	2.2	32.9	50.7	604.1	834.5	38.2	255
72. Cilegon	13.3	27.3	49.2	680.8	1,165.4	44.8	161
51. Bali	0.0	43.6	49.2	422.2	725.4	42.3	26
01. Jembrana	0.0	43.3	49.9	314.3	591.1	42.3	201
02. Tabanan	0.0	44.9	49.3	406.1	712.8	45.7	141
03. Badung	5.7	41.7	49.9	506.9	738.2	44.9	159
04. Gianyar	0.0	39.7	48.1	372.8	642.4	27.5	320
05. Klungkung	8.0	47.9	50.2	326.6	602.5	50.1	75
06. Bangli	0.0	44.8	49.3	331.6	544.8	37.9	258
07. Karangasem	2.9	46.5	50.3	297.6	577.8	45.4	146
08. Buleleng	2.2	44.4	49.2	276.8	1,017.3	31.1	307
71. Denpasar	0.0	42.4	48.4	500.3	759.3	46.0	135
52. West Nusa Tenggara	5.5	43.9	51.8	306.0	481.3	47.2	20
01. West Lombok	2.2	42.7	51.7	219.3	416.5	29.5	316
02. Central Lombok	6.7	50.4	53.2	273.5	348.7	47.9	107
03. East Lombok	6.3	44.6	52.7	204.1	708.0	34.6	286
04. Sumbawa	0.0	40.7	49.8	496.2	605.2	45.4	147
05. Dompu	0.0	41.1	49.5	459.3	527.3	48.9	88
06. Bima	0.0	41.2	51.2	312.8	499.3	38.8	250
71. Mataram	8.6	36.8	50.4	389.8	441.0	52.3	52
53. East Nusa Tenggara	3.6	42.2	50.8	445.6	585.7	46.2	22
01. West Sumba	0.0	44.2	49.9	431.0	520.2	42.2	202
02. East Sumba	0.0	41.4	49.0	753.4	600.2	48.5	92
03. Kupang	5.0	39.9	50.6	232.4	484.3	36.9	268
04. Southern Central Timor	5.7	34.8	50.4	237.0	669.1	19.3	332
05. Northern Central Timor	0.0	38.7	50.1	316.2	470.0	27.0	323
06. Belu	0.0	36.7	50.1	437.3	502.0	44.0	175
07. Alor	0.0	41.5	49.8	250.4	546.7	33.5	295
08. Lembata	0.0	50.4	54.7	637.0	642.1	43.6	185
09. East Flores	0.0	42.3	52.1	618.5	508.7	44.3	168
10. Sikka	6.7	46.7	52.7	365.4	551.6	48.0	105
11. Ende	3.3	55.7	54.9	371.4	549.4	50.9	68
12. Ngada	0.0	40.4	50.5	483.2	544.8	48.4	95
13. Manggarai	0.0	44.7	50.9	663.3	446.6	33.3	297
71. Kupang	10.0	33.8	48.8	502.0	783.1	44.1	174
61. West Kalimantan	3.6	38.2	48.8	478.5	655.7	47.9	19
01. Sambas	2.2	46.0	50.3	365.7	616.5	45.6	142
02. Bengkayang	0.0	35.6	48.4	392.7	708.8	40.0	234
03. Landak	0.0	37.4	46.8	454.0	626.8	34.4	287
04. Pontianak	2.2	33.2	47.9	576.6	670.3	44.0	177
05. Sanggau	2.2	38.3	49.6	447.0	570.4	41.3	217
06. Ketapang	7.5	34.5	47.3	572.2	615.5	55.5	26
07. Sintang	0.0	40.3	48.7	399.6	678.8	42.6	199
08. Kapuas Hulu	4.0	44.4	48.6	670.5	786.4	51.0	65
71. Pontianak	2.5	36.7	52.0	435.5	669.4	42.7	198

Province District	Participation of women in parliament (%)	Females in the labour force (%)	Female population (%)	Average Non-agricultural wage (thousand Rupiah)		GEM	GEM ranking
				Female	Male		
62. Central Kalimantan	2.2	34.1	48.2	558.4	770.8	43.4	25
01. West Kotawaringin	4.2	35.0	47.2	495.9	817.1	39.9	237
02. East Kotawaringin	0.0	23.5	47.1	452.4	773.0	27.2	322
03. Kapuas	8.9	41.4	48.8	430.8	680.7	54.5	30
04. South Barito	5.6	38.9	49.2	532.9	654.3	52.1	53
05. North Barito	0.0	35.2	48.2	701.4	1,125.7	40.5	227
71. Palangka Raya	4.2	30.8	50.2	641.6	743.0	45.5	144
63. South Kalimantan	12.7	39.4	49.9	482.8	748.3	57.5	2
01. Tanah Laut	6.7	40.3	49.8	385.5	695.6	46.4	129
02. Kota Baru	5.0	34.8	49.3	305.8	816.3	32.6	301
03. Banjar	10.0	39.5	49.3	442.1	686.1	55.6	25
04. Barito Kuala	3.3	43.1	50.7	534.7	667.7	50.4	72
05. Tapin	4.0	40.5	50.5	404.9	718.3	43.4	191
06. South Hulu Sungai	3.7	44.0	50.3	334.3	677.6	47.3	114
07. Central Hulu Sungai	10.0	46.7	50.3	340.9	948.3	49.2	85
08. North Hulu Sungai	3.3	43.4	50.4	361.2	538.3	50.3	73
09. Tabalong	0.0	42.5	51.3	437.7	871.3	40.6	226
71. Banjarmasin	4.4	32.8	49.8	493.9	779.5	40.4	231
72. Banjar Baru	8.0	30.8	48.5	559.0	746.5	51.8	57
64. East Kalimantan	6.7	30.3	48.0	553.4	1,051.1	41.1	27
01. Pasir	3.3	29.3	48.6	565.8	929.1	39.6	243
02. West Kutai	0.0	32.9	47.3	543.0	995.3	36.6	272
03. Kutai	2.2	30.2	47.1	623.3	1,234.1	36.7	271
04. East Kutai	0.0	24.4	46.0	704.7	1,427.9	20.7	331
05. Berau	0.0	32.0	46.3	551.9	1,117.4	36.9	270
06. Malinau	0.0	36.8	48.0	550.3	778.0	22.2	329
07. Bulongan	3.3	32.9	47.6	495.0	776.7	42.0	203
08. Nunukan	0.0	31.9	48.6	362.5	572.2	35.9	276
71. Balikpapan	10.0	31.0	49.8	553.0	887.8	46.5	127
72. Samarinda	4.4	32.6	48.4	533.4	1,045.7	39.3	245
73. Tarakan	4.0	23.6	47.0	558.9	646.4	40.8	223
74. Bontang	4.0	21.7	47.9	519.0	1,421.5	26.4	324
71. North Sulawesi	11.1	30.8	48.5	618.0	769.1	55.1	6
01. Bolaang Mongondow	4.0	25.1	47.8	441.2	560.1	40.1	233
02. Minahasa	7.0	31.9	48.6	557.0	717.4	50.7	70
03. Sangihe Talaud	2.0	28.1	48.3	535.8	550.2	45.0	157
71. Manado	3.0	35.2	48.8	747.3	925.0	47.5	113
72. Bitung	2.0	33.3	49.6	474.2	671.0	42.9	195
72. Central Sulawesi	11.1	33.7	48.9	636.2	628.8	59.1	1
01. Banggai Kepulauan	0.0	36.0	48.1	137.4	529.0	22.6	326
02. Banggai	2.5	36.9	50.8	262.0	577.3	37.5	261
03. Morowali	0.0	31.9	48.2	245.8	510.8	34.3	289
04. Poso	7.5	31.8	47.6	613.1	571.3	54.5	31
05. Donggala	4.8	34.4	48.7	220.4	550.4	36.9	269
06. Toli-Toli	6.7	22.1	49.3	352.3	758.2	32.2	303
07. Buol	0.0	20.8	48.0	502.6	597.1	33.8	291
71. Palu	3.3	37.8	50.1	478.0	728.7	44.8	160

Province District	Participation of women in parliament (%)	Females in the labour force (%)	Female population (%)	Average Non-agricultural wage (thousand Rupiah)		GEM	GEM ranking
				Female	Male		
73. South Sulawesi	2.7	33.9	51.0	577.0	710.8	45.6	23
01. Selayar	4.0	37.1	53.1	479.5	630.5	47.1	118
02. Bulukumba	6.1	36.8	51.8	305.9	625.1	42.4	200
03. Bantaeng	4.0	34.0	50.9	472.4	552.6	46.7	124
04. Jeneponto	3.0	37.8	51.2	561.7	495.8	51.3	62
05. Takalar	6.7	36.4	53.2	539.8	460.3	55.2	27
06. Gowa	7.5	30.3	49.8	482.4	558.1	49.9	77
07. Sinjai	3.4	31.6	52.3	427.0	643.2	40.3	232
08. Maros	3.3	29.3	50.9	433.6	622.1	37.9	259
09. Pangkajene Kepulauan	6.7	29.9	51.6	312.8	723.3	35.8	277
10. Barru	8.0	30.2	52.9	515.0	607.8	48.9	89
11. Bone	8.9	35.2	53.7	359.9	500.3	49.6	81
12. Soppeng	3.3	34.7	53.4	547.4	897.7	41.1	220
13. Wajo	13.9	29.4	52.2	167.2	530.7	35.1	282
14. Sidenreng Rappang	0.0	29.4	51.3	413.9	600.6	36.5	273
15. Pinrang	2.9	27.5	50.2	394.3	646.2	37.0	267
16. Enrekang	8.0	38.6	47.8	671.2	693.4	54.3	32
17. Luwu	2.9	36.9	49.8	536.4	797.4	43.5	190
18. Tana Toraja	2.5	34.4	47.9	672.3	613.9	50.8	69
19. Polewali Mamasa	9.4	41.6	52.1	381.8	545.0	52.3	51
20. Majene	4.0	37.2	52.2	483.0	742.7	45.2	150
21. Mamuju	6.7	37.3	49.5	369.6	707.4	44.1	172
22. North Luwu	4.4	27.5	49.3	422.0	1,327.0	28.0	318
71. Ujung Pandang	6.7	35.5	50.4	537.0	800.6	46.9	122
72. Pare Pare	8.0	29.0	50.0	424.4	636.7	44.0	178
74. South East Sulawesi	6.7	38.6	50.4	517.5	751.2	48.0	18
01. Buton	7.5	40.6	51.0	471.3	801.9	40.8	222
02. Muna	6.7	46.5	53.0	405.8	704.3	49.7	78
03. Kendari	7.5	39.4	48.4	537.2	526.0	52.9	45
04. Kolaka	6.7	30.3	49.3	544.9	666.4	47.9	106
71. Kendari	16.0	32.6	51.1	552.4	936.9	48.2	102
75. Gorontalo	11.1	29.0	48.7	389.3	513.3	51.4	10
01. Boalemo	24.0	25.1	47.6	342.0	419.5	61.3	4
02. Gorontalo	8.9	29.5	48.8	380.2	515.6	49.0	87
71. Gorontalo	8.0	32.9	49.9	413.5	539.3	50.1	74
81. Maluku	4.5	49.2	48.8	581.2	821.5	51.8	9
01. West South-East Maluku	0.0	49.5	52.2	332.8	379.7	41.7	210
02. South-East Maluku	2.9	49.7	50.4	425.5	809.4	39.9	240
03. Central Maluku	0.0	48.9	50.3	410.2	684.7	34.3	288
04. Buru	4.0	48.8	46.0	600.0	939.1	14.9	335
71. Ambon	8.6	49.2	50.3	871.1	825.4	59.4	9
82. North Maluku	0.0	49.1	50.6	705.9	1,011.8	31.2	30
01. North Maluku	8.9	48.7	48.5	270.8	645.0	36.3	275
02. Central Halmahera	0.0	46.6	51.3	557.2	1,232.3	29.1	317
71. Ternate	16.0	51.2	49.9	796.3	1,043.6	45.8	138

Province District	Participation of women in parliament (%)	Females in the labour force (%)	Female population (%)	Average Non-agricultural wage (thousand Rupiah)		GEM	GEM ranking
				Female	Male		
91. Papua	6.7	48.2	47.7	877.1	1,347.5	49.0	15
01. Merauke	5.9	47.1	48.5	919.0	998.7	43.7	184
02. Jayawijaya	2.5	50.6	47.9	877.1	868.8	29.9	315
03. Jayapura	8.0	46.1	48.2	828.1	1,001.8	38.9	248
04. Nabire	8.0	50.9	47.1	450.0	1,550.0	27.5	321
05. Paniai	0.0	47.9	48.6	877.1	762.5	30.1	313
06. Puncak Jaya	5.3	48.2	47.9	677.5	883.8	32.8	300
07. Fak Fak	0.0	49.8	49.8	743.6	1,130.9	22.5	327
08. Mimika	0.0	49.4	46.9	778.7	728.8	24.8	325
09. Sorong	3.3	48.4	47.5	590.0	1,208.2	21.5	330
10. Manokwari	8.0	49.5	47.9	877.1	1,347.5	43.5	189
11. Yapen Waropen	0.0	46.5	48.4	877.1	1,347.5	18.4	333
12. Biak Numfor	10.0	45.4	46.8	650.0	1,547.2	41.5	216
71. Jayapura	3.3	44.1	44.7	964.8	1,289.6	48.2	101
72. Sorong	0.0	47.4	47.4	1,032.7	1,965.3	41.5	215
Indonesia	8.8	37.5	49.9	461.8	680.7	54.6	

Notes:

1. Districts in Nangroe Aceh Darussalam, Maluku, North Maluku, and Papua use 2003 data.
2. The number before each province or district is the official area code. District refers to both regency (kabupaten) and city (kota). Where two districts have the same name, the one with a code number above 70 is a city.

Source: BPS special tabulation

11 Human Poverty Index (HPI) by district, 1999 and 2002

Province District	People not expected to survive to age 40 (%)		Adult Illiteracy rate (%)		Population without access to clean water (%)		Population without access to health facilities (%)		Under- nourished children under five (%)		HPI		HPI Ranking	
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002
11. Nangroe Aceh Darussalam	12.7	12.6	6.9	4.2	61.5	48.5	37.6	38.0	35.6	35.2	31.4	28.4	23	23
01. Simeulue		22.2		6.0		48.2		56.6		52.5		37.3		322
02. Aceh Singkil		21.2		4.6		70.9		74.2		30.6		41.3		336
03. South Aceh*	18.8	17.7	8.7	5.0	73.7	67.6	73.9	74.2	30.9	30.6	41.7	40.2	287	333
04. South East Aceh	12.4	11.7	9.3	4.9	64.6	37.7	45.7	46.2	35.6	35.2	34.0	27.8	253	236
05. East Aceh	13.2	12.3	6.1	3.5	47.6	37.5	40.2	40.6	37.7	37.3	29.3	27.0	195	219
06. Central Aceh	14.2	13.6	2.8	3.4	54.5	47.6	37.1	37.5	21.0	20.8	26.5	24.9	154	187
07. West Aceh*	12.0	11.7	8.8	5.6	75.5	67.6	56.0	56.6	53.1	52.5	42.8	41.0	289	335
08. Aceh Besar	10.4	10.1	5.6	5.6	61.3	48.3	21.3	21.5	49.5	48.9	30.7	27.6	214	234
09. Pidie	12.8	12.6	12.4	3.6	78.8	49.1	21.7	21.9	41.7	41.2	33.3	26.3	248	206
10. Bireuen		6.3		3.1		54.4		46.4		33.2		31.0		277
11. North Aceh*	11.4	10.9	5.5	2.1	61.0	30.1	45.9	46.4	33.6	33.2	32.6	25.6	238	194
71. Banda Aceh	11.7	11.4	2.3	1.1	23.5	9.3	0.0	12.7	24.9	24.6	12.5	12.0	14	16
72. Sabang	11.3	11.0	5.2	3.5	35.9	32.3	25.0	25.3	26.3	26.0	20.6	19.7	66	86
12. North Sumatera	13.5	13.3	4.2	3.9	47.9	41.8	20.9	30.4	35.3	33.0	24.5	24.8		15
01. Nias	14.6	14.0	14.3	17.1	48.3	42.0	47.7	46.7	59.0	57.7	36.3	34.6	273	310
02. Mandailing Natal		22.5		3.5		71.9		50.0		30.5		36.2		317
03. South Tapanuli*	17.9	16.6	0.7	0.6	66.1	57.7	46.9	52.4	30.2	28.2	33.7	32.5	251	292
04. Central Tapanuli	16.2	16.1	6.2	5.3	61.6	59.9	20.9	29.3	33.0	39.2	27.4	30.2	167	266
05. North Tapanuli*	16.6	16.4	3.8	2.8	63.7	52.3	60.8	22.2	32.3	25.5	36.6	24.0	276	166
06. Toba Samosir		13.8		3.8		69.9		50.0		35.2		36.1		315
07. Labuhan Batu	16.1	15.5	3.5	4.0	63.9	48.0	41.1	14.1	23.6	31.6	30.2	22.5	208	131
08. Asahan	13.8	13.4	6.3	5.9	42.3	38.7	12.0	26.9	27.1	31.9	19.7	23.1	55	152
09. Simalungun	13.3	13.2	6.4	3.6	38.2	33.2	14.4	20.9	31.7	20.2	20.2	18.0	59	68
10. Dairi	16.2	15.5	3.2	3.2	50.9	44.3	19.8	28.8	50.7	37.0	28.7	26.1	186	202
11. Karo	8.5	8.2	4.5	2.4	45.9	38.7	18.1	26.3	29.2	29.3	21.7	21.9	86	122
12. Deli Serdang	15.3	14.9	6.0	4.9	55.6	44.0	13.9	24.8	41.4	31.4	26.3	23.8	151	164
13. Langkat	14.1	13.5	2.8	2.6	45.3	31.9	23.5	34.7	37.3	39.2	25.0	24.9	131	185
71. Sibolga	11.5	11.3	1.5	0.9	10.7	7.6	0.0	30.4	34.7	28.0	11.8	15.9	11	44
72. Tanjung Balai	13.8	13.4	3.0	3.7	20.9	15.9	2.1	35.2	26.7	24.0	13.4	18.2	19	72
73. Pematang Siantar	9.1	8.3	1.7	1.3	8.0	5.4	10.6	7.3	29.3	27.4	11.7	10.0	10	9
74. Tebing Tinggi	10.0	9.5	2.2	2.4	69.2	50.6	0.0	14.1	23.2	22.2	21.6	20.3	83	98
75. Medan	10.4	10.2	1.2	0.9	28.2	20.3	0.0	6.7	36.3	36.6	15.5	15.2	28	34
76. Binjai	10.5	10.2	2.7	2.3	63.3	45.1	0.0	27.5	36.4	21.0	23.3	21.9	105	121
13. West Sumatera	16.2	15.2	5.3	4.9	46.4	42.4	21.7	27.6	34.0	28.0	24.4	23.4		12
01. Kepulauan Mentawai		13.5		9.2		88.2				10.5		23.5		159
02. South Pesisir	18.3	17.5	6.6	6.1	53.9	42.0	46.4	36.5	32.4	17.5	31.4	23.4	224	157
03. Solok	25.3	23.4	5.4	4.2	34.6	31.2	21.7	35.9	34.9	28.0	24.6	24.6	123	175
04. Sawah Lunto/Sijunjung	22.4	22.2	8.3	12.7	50.9	46.5	35.6	45.3	32.5	29.6	29.1	29.8	193	263
05. Tanah Datar	13.4	13.2	6.8	4.5	44.4	40.1	12.6	30.4	38.2	28.9	22.6	23.5	97	158
06. Padang Pariaman*	18.0	17.1	6.5	6.7	61.7	58.0	33.8	26.6	41.0	34.9	32.2	28.4	234	249
07. Agam	13.4	13.2	5.8	4.5	44.1	40.3	21.7	17.1	39.1	29.0	24.7	20.6	124	102
08. Limapuluh Koto	17.4	16.4	5.3	2.5	47.3	38.4	33.7	25.9	38.1	28.1	28.3	22.4	181	128
09. Pasaman	24.4	22.3	6.1	5.6	40.2	39.5	37.8	48.1	32.5	30.6	27.8	28.9	175	256
71. Padang	10.9	11.0	2.8	1.8	55.0	34.1	10.3	13.1	28.1	32.0	21.9	18.7	89	77
72. Solok	14.8	14.3	2.4	2.7	11.4	5.7	0.0	6.3	28.5	15.0	12.3	10.7	13	10
73. Sawah Lunto	9.2	8.7	2.6	3.4	29.2	27.2	0.0	23.5	28.0	19.8	13.7	16.6	20	49
74. Padang Panjang	10.4	10.1	2.6	1.5	16.1	16.6	0.0	27.7	18.6	19.9	9.6	15.3	3	36
75. Bukit Tinggi	9.6	9.3	1.3	2.0	21.7	18.3	0.0	24.0	21.0	13.7	10.8	13.5	7	21
76. Payakumbuh	14.0	13.6	2.9	3.7	35.6	21.9	0.0	23.4	31.8	16.8	16.8	15.6	38	40

Province District	People not expected to survive to age 40 (%)		Adult Illiteracy rate (%)		Population without access to clean water (%)		Population without access to health facilities (%)		Under- nourished children under five (%)		HPI		HPI Ranking	
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002
14. Riau	12.4	12.0	4.4	3.5	71.8	58.9	39.2	29.7	27.9	18.4	32.3	25.1	16	
01. Kuantan Sengingi		16.7		2.0		61.1		67.7		18.1		34.4		308
02. Indragiri Hulu*	17.4	17.0	7.2	4.5	47.7	61.7	58.1	44.0	42.9	32.9	34.9	32.6	261	293
03. Indragiri Hilir	12.0	12.0	3.2	1.9	97.5	95.7	59.3	44.4	32.3	23.8	43.8	38.0	292	326
04. Pelalawan		14.7		5.9		52.3		32.8		12.5		23.3		155
05. Siak		8.7		1.8		40.7		44.9		27.0		26.1		203
06. Kampar*	15.8	15.4	4.4	2.2	67.7	50.1	49.0	44.3	29.2		34.1	22.6	254	139
07. Rokan Hulu		20.0		5.0		72.2		39.8				27.2		224
08. Bengkalis*	11.1	10.6	4.5	4.7	82.2	70.8	48.9	49.9	21.0	13.8	35.3	31.2	268	283
09. Rokan Hilir		15.2		4.6		61.2		39.1		55.0		36.2		316
10. Kepulauan Riau*	11.6	11.0	9.1	11.7	59.2	60.6	11.8	24.9	22.8		22.2	20.6	93	101
11. Karimun		11.3		5.6		56.4		30.2		14.1		23.6		161
12. Natuna		15.6		9.4		59.6		31.8				22.2		125
71. Pekanbaru	9.0	9.0	0.5	0.7	76.0	56.2	6.2	5.4	32.9	17.6	26.7	18.6	158	76
72. Batam	10.2	9.8	3.7	1.0	44.5	26.6	25.0	3.9	25.0	5.3	22.1	9.6	91	7
73. Dumai		9.7		1.1		67.4		19.9		24.1		25.9		201
15. Jambi	14.2	13.9	6.3	5.3	57.3	47.4	21.5	23.1	32.9	25.0	26.3	22.7	9	
01. Kerinci	11.7	10.9	5.1	6.9	37.0	38.7	21.2	22.5	22.8	31.8	19.3	21.9	51	120
02. Merangin		14.9		4.3		51.0		27.7		16.6		22.8		143
03. Sarolangun*	14.9	14.3	7.2	9.8	65.1	57.9	36.5	34.0	39.4	31.3	33.0	29.0	246	257
04. Batanghari*	15.7	15.1	4.8	3.2	54.3	27.0	15.8	17.0	34.5	16.6	24.9	15.7	128	41
05. Muara Jambi		14.8		6.0		34.4		25.8		18.4		19.3		79
06. East Tanjung Jabung		13.8		6.1		78.1		23.8		32.5		31.4		285
Tanjung Jabung	12.4		7.9		94.4		22.2		33.5		34.9		261	
07. West Tanjung Jabung		11.0		4.0		73.2		2.5		34.8		25.8		198
08. Tebo		15.8		8.1		48.7		34.4		25.6		25.9		200
Bungo Tebo	19.6		7.6		60.8		30.8		39.2		31.2		220	
09. Bungo		21.4		5.4		42.0		30.9		29.4		25.5		193
71. Jambi	11.5	11.0	4.7	2.2	28.3	29.2	2.0	0.7	21.8	21.0	13.2	12.7	18	18
16. South Sumatera*	16.2	16.0	6.6	5.9	59.7	52.7	28.9	36.0	26.4	28.2	27.3	27.7	21	
01. Ogan Komering Ulu	12.4	12.1	8.5	7.8	54.1	55.2	47.0	37.0	23.4	25.1	29.1	27.5	193	230
02. Ogan Komering Hilir	21.6	20.9	6.6	6.7	65.6	62.3	15.7	31.2	29.3	36.4	27.2	31.2	165	281
03. Muara Enim (Liot)	19.1	18.4	4.6	6.0	60.8	61.4	46.9	32.4	23.2	26.9	31.1	28.8	216	255
04. Lahat	20.0	19.1	3.8	3.4	83.5	58.9	36.1	45.0	33.3	24.6	36.0	30.6	272	268
05. Musi Rawas	24.0	23.0	8.8	8.8	69.7	55.9	41.7	52.7	28.6	27.7	33.8	32.9	252	294
06. Musi Banyuasin	14.2	13.9	6.7	7.9	79.5	59.0	23.1	45.1	26.4	27.3	30.2	30.8	208	271
71. Palembang	12.4	11.7	4.1	2.2	22.8	20.1	6.3	17.0	33.1	29.1	15.4	16.0	25	45
17. Bengkulu	16.6	16.3	7.4	7.0	59.2	45.0	24.8	22.0	30.0	26.4	27.1	22.7	8	
01. South Bengkulu	19.0	18.4	9.6	6.5	80.7	56.1	16.8	20.0	34.0	25.9	31.3	24.8	222	183
02. Rejang Lebong	22.2	21.3	7.5	7.0	56.1	39.9	24.9	22.9	28.1	25.0	27.1	22.7	162	141
03. North Bengkulu	16.0	15.6	9.6	10.8	47.7	44.3	50.0	35.4	28.1	25.5	29.7	25.2	198	191
71. Bengkulu	10.2	10.1	1.7	1.6	61.4	39.8	5.2	2.2	31.4	30.5	22.9	17.2	100	57
18. Lampung	15.4	15.2	8.2	7.0	54.4	45.9	34.5	29.8	29.1	24.2	27.9	23.9	13	
01. West Lampung	16.8	19.2	7.6	6.2	68.0	60.8	59.6	50.6	33.9	21.4	37.7	31.5	281	288
02. Tanggamus		15.3		7.9		47.2		14.0		20.9		20.2		94
03. South Lampung*	16.8	16.7	8.3	8.9	58.7	46.5	26.9	18.4	28.6	13.7	27.2	19.8	165	88
04. East Lampung		12.0		9.8		34.2		40.5		22.3		23.0		151
05. Central Lampung*	14.0	13.4	10.8	6.5	48.9	40.7	24.5	12.9	26.5	16.0	23.9	17.2	111	58
06. North Lampung*	16.8	16.4	7.8	4.0	52.7	50.7	61.3	49.1	32.9	42.8	34.4	33.4	257	299
07. Way Kanan		14.8		5.5		69.1		89.1		31.2		44.0		338
08. Tulang Bawang		17.6		7.7		50.1		56.1		39.4		34.2		305
71. Bandar Lampung	12.6	12.4	3.7	3.5	56.6	33.9	2.4	1.9	27.2	28.7	20.5	15.8	62	43
72. Metro		7.3		3.5		48.7		2.3		7.6		13.8		24

Province District	People not expected to survive to age 40 (%)		Adult Illiteracy rate (%)		Population without access to clean water (%)		Population without access to health facilities (%)		Under- nourished children under five (%)		HPI		HPI Ranking	
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002
19. Bangka Belitung	16.0		8.3		48.9		35.3		21.1		25.2		18	
01. Bangka	14.6	14.9	12.3	10.2	61.5	50.4	46.7	42.8	25.0	21.4	31.4	27.2	224	223
02. Belitung	13.8	14.1	6.5	5.6	68.0	53.7	23.2	42.9	20.4	17.8	26.3	26.9	151	217
71. Pangkal Pinang	11.6	11.9	6.6	4.8	57.5	34.7	0.0	23.8	28.6	25.4	20.4	19.9	61	89
31. DKI Jakarta	7.9	6.7	2.2	1.8	40.2	30.3	2.0	2.9	23.7	23.2	15.5	13.2	1	
71. South Jakarta	7.7	7.4	2.9	1.7	72.7	58.2	1.3	2.9	25.0	12.3	23.0	17.1	1	55
72. East Jakarta	7.4	6.5	1.6	1.5	56.5	44.6	4.1	6.8	24.8	21.2	19.9	16.9	56	52
73. Central Jakarta	9.0	8.5	2.3	1.9	16.4	14.7	0.3	0.7	17.2	23.1	9.0	9.7	2	8
74. West Jakarta	7.5	6.8	2.3	2.1	26.6	17.1	2.2	2.7	21.4	30.3	11.9	11.8	12	14
75. North Jakarta	7.9	6.9	2.3	1.8	5.7	2.3	0.8	1.5	26.2	32.2	8.4	8.8	104	2
32. West Java*	18.2	18.0	7.8	6.9	62.1	53.0	22.4	19.0	27.2	21.5	26.9	23.0	11	
01. Bogor*	16.7	15.1	6.3	8.5	59.0	55.9	15.4	15.2	29.5	20.7	24.9	22.2	128	124
02. Sukabumi	21.7	20.6	4.0	5.7	56.6	50.1	34.6	32.8	32.5	16.2	29.9	24.7	201	178
03. Cianjur	19.4	18.6	4.4	4.3	62.2	57.9	55.9	38.5	31.8	17.8	35.3	27.4	268	228
04. Bandung	14.3	14.0	5.3	3.0	70.8	61.2	14.3	20.1	21.2	24.8	25.1	25.0	133	188
05. Garut	26.9	26.0	3.2	4.3	64.9	59.2	21.2	28.1	25.9	20.0	28.8	27.7	188	235
06. Tasik Malaya	16.1	15.2	3.8	2.6	80.0	63.6	10.4	29.7	30.5	24.8	28.5	27.8	183	237
07. Ciamis	18.9	18.8	6.1	4.7	60.7	55.1	13.6	16.0	27.7	19.7	24.9	22.6	128	134
08. Kuningan	17.2	17.0	8.3	9.5	65.3	60.0	22.4	19.0	32.3	15.0	28.5	23.0	183	150
09. Cirebon	20.6	20.0	13.4	13.0	56.9	57.0	23.4	19.8	33.9	31.6	28.1	26.7	178	213
10. Majalengka	20.6	19.6	11.1	9.0	53.5	48.8	12.6	14.3	37.3	26.3	25.7	22.6	140	137
11. Sumedang	14.5	14.2	4.4	4.7	59.1	42.6	34.3	29.1	19.9	16.2	26.7	21.1	158	114
12. Indramayu	20.1	19.3	33.3	23.8	59.7	57.5	30.4	25.8	25.7	27.8	32.5	28.8	236	254
13. Subang	16.9	16.0	13.8	15.8	70.7	58.3	29.3	24.8	34.8	21.4	32.0	25.6	231	195
14. Purwakarta	19.7	18.7	5.5	5.1	53.1	39.7	22.2	33.6	28.9	16.0	25.5	22.2	139	126
15. Karawang	21.7	20.9	15.2	12.8	70.1	65.4	26.9	31.7	32.5	25.4	31.5	29.8	225	264
16. Bekasi	14.3	13.7	12.4	8.9	51.2	36.9	24.3	11.1	11.6	20.4	21.4	17.1	81	54
71. Bogor	12.6	12.2	2.6	2.6	68.9	46.5	11.3	9.6	31.4	7.4	26.1	15.6	148	39
72. Sukabumi	15.8	15.1	2.4	1.4	47.2	35.0	0.0	25.2	10.9	12.8	15.5	18.1	28	70
73. Bandung	11.8	11.0	1.7	1.1	33.8	32.7	4.4	3.7	22.9	18.0	15.0	13.5	23	20
74. Cirebon	13.5	12.8	5.4	4.7	17.8	22.1	0.0	25.7	27.3	29.2	12.6	18.5	16	75
75. Bekasi	14.3	12.0	2.9	2.0	74.9	43.9	0.0	1.1	11.6	32.1	20.8	18.4	71	73
76. Depok		7.3		3.9		46.2		8.5		9.6		15.1		32
33. Central Java	11.7	10.9	15.2	14.3	47.8	39.8	17.1	20.9	30.5	25.0	23.2	21.0	6	
01. Cilacap	13.4	12.5	15.8	13.0	58.8	46.0	24.3	23.1	33.3	28.0	27.8	23.3	175	156
02. Banyumas	11.9	11.3	8.8	10.4	51.0	40.5	17.6	25.3	21.0	22.2	21.3	21.0	79	112
03. Purbalingga	13.0	12.7	13.8	11.2	68.9	30.1	17.1	28.9	30.0	27.6	27.5	20.9	168	110
04. Banjarnegara	13.0	12.5	14.1	17.7	63.7	49.7	17.1	20.9	21.6	20.8	24.6	22.9	123	146
05. Kebumen	13.4	12.8	12.8	14.4	56.3	54.1	36.5	28.4	32.7	19.0	29.6	24.4	197	172
06. Purworejo	12.6	12.2	13.7	11.5	57.8	41.4	12.3	19.7	24.1	21.3	22.8	20.0	98	93
07. Wonosobo	12.6	11.5	13.5	14.9	33.8	27.6	46.6	48.2	33.9	23.7	27.1	24.0	162	165
08. Magelang	12.1	11.0	13.8	11.0	28.9	35.3	27.3	11.9	28.0	24.4	20.7	17.6	67	61
09. Boyolali	10.2	10.0	18.6	18.1	37.1	45.7	20.0	30.4	19.1	11.8	20.0	22.0	57	123
10. Klaten	10.5	9.7	18.9	17.2	54.7	49.5	17.1	13.9	25.3	19.7	24.1	20.9	113	107
11. Sukoharjo	10.5	10.4	16.0	17.8	64.8	40.0	17.1	14.0	18.6	22.1	24.3	19.7	114	87
12. Wonogiri	7.9	7.5	23.6	22.6	41.3	38.0	25.9	16.8	17.7	20.1	23.0	20.9	102	111
13. Karanganyar	7.9	7.3	21.7	21.1	58.3	31.4	17.1	23.9	28.8	13.7	26.0	19.4	146	81
14. Sragen	8.3	7.7	28.4	24.7	40.9	39.6	51.3	36.0	30.7	17.6	31.3	24.8	222	180
15. Grobogan	12.4	12.0	14.4	13.5	35.0	30.0	25.9	24.6	20.3	27.8	20.2	20.2	59	97
16. Blora	9.4	9.1	25.9	19.4	24.8	31.2	30.1	44.7	34.0	36.5	24.5	27.2	119	225
17. Rembang	12.1	11.3	15.2	14.3	20.9	19.1	14.9	23.9	50.6	28.4	21.3	18.1	79	69
18. Pati	7.3	6.5	20.0	12.6	53.6	23.1	29.6	32.3	35.4	26.3	28.6	19.6	184	85
19. Kudus	12.4	11.9	11.2	11.3	49.8	41.5	14.4	25.2	43.0	23.9	25.4	21.7	137	119
20. Jepara	9.8	9.4	16.9	13.0	44.6	31.0	31.4	22.4	40.0	27.2	27.7	19.6	171	84
21. Demak	11.0	10.9	10.8	14.2	52.3	48.2	14.4	17.6	28.5	38.7	22.6	24.9	97	186
22. Semarang	8.5	7.9	10.6	11.5	41.6	28.4	28.5	23.3	32.7	14.8	24.1	16.2	113	46

Province District	People not expected to survive to age 40 (%)		Adult Illiteracy rate (%)		Population without access to clean water (%)		Population without access to health facilities (%)		Under- nourished children under five (%)		HPI		HPI Ranking	
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002
23. Temanggung	8.4	7.7	9.0	8.4	50.7	38.2	17.1	28.9	33.1	23.0	23.6	21.1	108	113
24. Kendal	17.5	17.1	15.7	11.4	48.6	41.0	17.1	31.8	34.3	26.2	24.9	24.2	128	171
25. Batang	11.9	11.2	14.2	15.1	70.7	59.8	17.1	27.9	21.9	29.9	26.1	27.9	148	239
26. Pekalongan	14.5	14.3	15.8	15.4	71.3	59.2	13.4	11.0	33.6	26.2	28.3	23.7	181	162
27. Pemalang	17.8	16.7	17.7	17.8	58.3	50.4	17.1	15.7	34.4	31.2	27.2	24.5	165	173
28. Tegal	16.7	15.1	16.5	17.2	70.9	53.2	10.3	24.0	39.6	32.1	29.2	26.7	194	210
29. Brebes	20.1	18.3	17.0	18.9	44.0	51.3	23.8	18.3	41.5	37.0	27.4	26.8	167	215
71. Magelang	10.6	10.4	6.6	4.4	18.1	14.6	0.0	11.0	19.2	17.8	10.4	11.2	6	11
72. Surakarta	8.1	8.0	7.1	5.4	39.0	34.7	0.0	10.9	14.0	11.9	12.9	13.7	17	22
73. Salatiga	9.9	9.2	4.3	6.7	16.8	11.4	0.0	10.8	21.0	9.9	10.1	9.2	4	3
74. Semarang	9.0	9.0	6.4	4.5	15.3	12.7	6.6	4.5	29.3	19.1	12.6	9.5	16	6
75. Pekalongan	11.9	11.3	10.2	8.4	62.5	52.1	0.0	10.6	29.7	24.3	22.0	20.6	90	103
76. Tegal	14.4	13.9	13.5	9.0	21.4	10.7	0.0	10.5	31.2	25.5	15.3	13.4	24	19
34. D. I. Yogyakarta	8.2	6.7	14.5	14.1	48.9	38.9	8.6	7.7	17.3	16.9	18.5	16.1		2
01. Kulon Progo	7.6	6.4	17.2	16.9	39.9	23.7	23.7	21.2	21.5	22.8	21.1	17.7	74	63
02. Bantul	10.0	9.0	17.4	16.6	53.7	42.3	9.6	4.2	24.0	17.0	21.8	17.0	88	53
03. Gunung Kidul	9.2	9.1	17.1	16.6	42.9	34.0	9.5	4.0	7.5	21.6	16.6	16.4	34	47
04. Sleman	7.3	6.4	14.3	11.4	46.4	42.4	8.6	7.1	18.1	12.1	18.1	15.1	46	33
71. Yogyakarta	6.7	6.1	4.9	5.1	60.5	43.3	0.0	3.6	11.3	14.3	16.8	14.3	38	28
35. East Java	16.2	15.3	18.7	16.8	43.0	36.7	17.1	22.2	30.7	25.5	23.4	21.7		7
01. Pacitan	9.6	9.4	19.2	18.0	47.8	36.6	17.1	27.3	19.8	13.2	21.7	19.9	86	90
02. Ponorogo	14.3	13.8	24.3	23.2	35.3	33.3	14.2	30.1	12.5	17.3	20.6	22.6	66	135
03. Trenggalek	10.1	9.7	12.8	12.0	48.9	38.5	10.4	26.4	29.9	21.7	21.4	20.7	81	104
04. Tulungagung	9.2	9.1	15.0	12.3	54.7	35.2	14.1	18.3	17.5	17.1	21.0	17.3	73	59
05. Blitar	11.3	11.0	17.6	15.0	52.2	39.9	17.1	25.1	26.6	21.0	23.6	21.1	108	115
06. Kediri	12.3	12.0	14.4	12.5	52.3	40.1	17.1	24.3	17.1	17.4	21.3	20.0	79	92
07. Malang	14.8	14.3	15.8	13.6	39.0	36.4	34.2	30.4	23.4	25.4	23.8	22.6	110	133
08. Lumajang	17.2	16.9	22.8	21.3	57.2	34.7	36.4	27.3	34.9	23.0	31.7	23.1	227	154
09. Jember	26.3	26.0	27.5	22.1	44.5	46.5	27.1	28.4	33.1	30.2	30.1	28.8	205	252
10. Banyuwangi	18.3	18.0	18.1	17.2	60.3	52.8	17.1	18.5	34.4	26.0	27.7	24.7	171	177
11. Bondowoso	28.2	27.8	36.2	34.7	46.7	58.0	34.5	37.3	40.0	35.1	35.6	36.5	271	318
12. Situbondo	24.0	23.4	35.6	33.4	60.7	58.2	18.3	36.0	33.7	28.6	33.4	34.1	249	303
13. Probolinggo	28.9	27.1	31.7	26.6	51.5	42.9	17.1	28.8	54.3	37.8	34.6	30.8	258	272
14. Pasuruan	24.0	23.6	17.0	12.6	65.7	52.7	29.5	30.9	29.8	20.9	31.2	26.8	220	214
15. Sidoarjo	12.2	11.9	4.6	4.0	26.6	24.0	12.1	9.3	33.0	14.4	17.3	12.4	42	17
16. Mojokerto	12.8	12.1	12.5	10.6	40.9	41.8	11.1	6.7	22.8	13.7	18.7	15.8	49	42
17. Jombang	14.2	13.9	11.6	11.6	49.4	42.2	17.1	13.3	28.4	28.0	22.9	20.5	100	100
18. Nganjuk	13.8	13.4	14.9	15.6	42.8	32.4	17.1	38.5	27.9	20.2	21.8	22.5	88	132
19. Madiun	13.9	13.2	20.3	18.9	44.6	41.1	17.1	13.2	22.6	24.6	22.3	20.9	94	108
20. Magetan	9.8	9.6	18.5	13.4	26.1	11.9	17.1	21.2	13.4	24.1	16.7	15.1	36	31
21. Ngawi	13.7	13.2	20.6	21.7	43.4	31.8	31.7	24.4	39.2	28.2	28.1	22.6	178	138
22. Bojonegoro	16.1	16.0	21.4	23.0	38.4	32.8	28.1	29.3	27.5	26.7	24.6	24.1	123	167
23. Tuban	15.6	15.5	26.2	23.1	38.5	41.1	23.9	19.3	33.3	32.4	26.2	24.8	149	182
24. Lamongan	14.6	14.5	19.7	16.9	44.2	33.4	12.9	42.8	39.5	23.7	24.5	24.6	119	176
25. Gresik	13.2	12.0	8.7	9.3	46.7	35.9	10.5	13.6	29.4	26.9	20.8	18.5	71	74
26. Bangkalan	24.8	23.6	37.0	26.4	43.3	27.8	44.7	52.4	48.3	50.7	37.6	33.7	280	301
27. Sampang	34.1	32.2	45.1	43.8	48.3	29.6	22.8	45.8	43.4	36.5	39.6	38.3	283	328
28. Pamekasan	24.4	23.2	27.3	26.2	43.8	37.1	29.5	28.0	62.9	50.5	35.0	30.8	263	273
29. Sumenep	24.8	24.1	33.2	30.4	44.6	40.2	36.4	35.2	32.5	38.3	32.8	31.8	241	289
71. Kediri	11.5	11.3	7.1	4.7	64.6	42.4	0.0	10.1	21.1	19.1	20.3	17.2	60	56
72. Blitar	9.8	9.4	7.7	4.8	70.2	55.2	0.0	10.0	20.0	17.4	21.2	19.4	75	80
73. Malang	15.0	14.4	5.6	5.1	42.1	38.2	0.0	10.1	25.9	10.8	17.2	15.3	41	35
74. Probolinggo	12.9	12.2	13.8	11.8	41.0	40.7	0.0	10.3	32.1	35.4	18.6	20.9	48	109
75. Pasuruan	18.6	17.5	12.3	8.1	26.6	17.7	0.0	10.5	30.1	32.3	17.1	16.8	40	50
76. Mojokerto	9.3	9.1	6.5	3.9	55.9	41.6	0.0	6.4	23.2	17.0	18.6	15.4	48	38
77. Madiun	10.6	10.4	8.3	6.0	49.3	25.7	0.0	12.5	15.0	19.9	15.7	14.2	30	27
78. Surabaya	11.7	11.3	6.2	4.1	4.5	1.8	12.2	3.4	25.8	23.8	11.6	9.3	9	4

Province District	People not expected to survive to age 40 (%)		Adult Illiteracy rate (%)		Population without access to clean water (%)		Population without access to health facilities (%)		Under- nourished children under five (%)		HPI		HPI Ranking	
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002
36. Banten	21.7		6.2		55.8		23.5		20.5		25.1		17	
01. Pandeglang	23.3	23.4	6.8	5.3	52.6	46.1	44.5	34.5	39.6	19.8	33.0	25.6	246	196
02. Lebak	22.5	22.8	9.2	9.8	60.6	65.2	51.3	52.5	23.9	16.5	32.7	32.4	240	291
03. Tangerang	19.2	19.1	11.3	6.3	77.3	51.5	30.7	16.1	20.3	24.4	30.7	22.9	214	147
04. Serang*	26.5	25.4	7.8	8.1	63.9	68.3	29.1	32.0	35.5	23.9	31.9	30.8	229	274
71. Tangerang	13.6	13.2	5.7	3.1	67.8	54.8	20.0	4.5	18.5	13.8	25.1	17.8	133	64
72. Cilegon	13.2		1.5		37.4		33.8		13.3		20.2		95	
51. Bali	11.7	9.5	17.3	15.8	34.2	27.8	14.9	19.8	21.0	18.7	18.7	17.3	3	
01. Jembrana	11.2	8.8	15.3	13.5	43.9	39.3	14.9	37.5	24.3	22.0	20.6	23.5	66	160
02. Tabanan	6.1	5.3	14.6	14.9	25.9	31.5	14.9	20.1	19.3	14.8	15.6	16.8	29	51
03. Badung	8.7	8.1	12.5	11.1	63.0	29.3	17.0	11.6	20.6	21.6	23.8	15.4	110	37
04. Gianyar	8.4	7.7	22.4	17.7	23.8	15.3	36.7	25.8	13.7	27.7	20.8	18.2	71	71
05. Klungkung	13.5	13.2	21.4	21.9	27.1	25.9	14.9	18.1	18.8	4.7	19.0	17.9	50	66
06. Bangli	8.7	8.1	21.5	16.9	28.9	23.5	25.5	35.5	13.4	17.6	19.5	19.4	54	82
07. Karangasem	14.6	14.4	33.9	32.0	30.4	34.4	29.2	20.8	24.7	19.2	27.8	25.7	175	197
08. Buleleng	15.3	15.2	16.8	17.4	23.7	14.1	14.9	25.2	25.1	18.2	18.1	17.4	46	60
71. Denpasar	7.2	6.7	6.2	5.3	43.1	33.3	6.2	1.4	21.2	15.7	16.5	12.0	33	15
52. West Nusa Tenggara	31.5	27.3	27.2	22.2	62.5	52.3	17.5	21.6	39.7	37.8	33.7	30.2	26	
01. West Lombok	34.5	31.2	36.3	27.1	64.7	55.4	24.9	42.0	44.1	41.7	39.0	36.8	282	319
02. Central Lombok	35.7	32.1	35.6	31.9	52.2	50.7	17.5	23.1	35.3	33.5	35.4	33.3	269	298
03. East Lombok	35.7	31.8	31.4	24.5	79.5	58.1	12.8	21.3	38.6	38.5	37.6	33.0	280	295
04. Sumbawa	34.5	30.8	15.3	12.4	58.9	46.0	33.9	14.8	35.0	38.4	34.4	28.2	257	244
05. Dompu	31.2	26.8	18.0	20.2	42.9	45.7	17.5	14.5	46.2	42.7	30.0	28.3	203	246
06. Bima	28.8	28.6	18.2	17.6	51.9	49.8	37.7	32.4	45.6	36.2	34.3	31.1	255	280
71. Mataram	20.9	20.5	12.2	5.0	61.6	44.6	13.3		34.8	33.6	24.5	23.1	119	153
53. East Nusa Tenggara	19.5	19.2	19.6	15.9	41.9	46.8	38.2	32.8	38.7	38.8	29.5	28.9	24	
01. West Sumba	23.2	21.8	31.0	28.4	48.4	58.7	26.6	55.5	44.1	40.3	32.7	38.4	240	329
02. East Sumba	27.8	26.9	22.8	19.0	30.8	23.6	40.5	36.3	31.9	33.6	29.1	26.6	193	209
03. Kupang	19.8	18.4	24.5	19.3	47.5	36.9	35.9	30.8	49.5	41.8	33.2	27.5	247	231
04. Southern Central Timor	16.6	15.9	32.5	20.9	44.7	49.9	49.1	19.3	41.1	50.5	35.1	29.5	264	261
05. Northern Central Timor	16.8	16.4	20.5	20.5	30.4	33.1	62.5	16.7	51.8	45.1	34.7	24.6	259	174
06. Belu	19.7	19.3	26.6	20.7	37.9	42.4	23.3	18.0	55.5	46.3	30.5	27.3	212	227
07. Alor	20.8	20.5	10.5	7.2	40.8	44.8	38.2	34.9	29.3	37.6	26.7	28.4	158	250
08. Lembata	17.2		8.7		53.7		50.0		38.5		33.4		300	
09. East Flores*	15.3	15.1	17.6	15.4	54.7	53.7	29.9	35.2	41.8	37.7	30.3	30.2	211	265
10. Sikka	15.8	15.5	15.4	14.4	55.4	53.5	53.5	41.5	25.7	36.1	32.0	31.1	231	279
11. Ende	21.1	20.4	11.2	9.7	54.6	47.0	41.2	29.7	38.2	39.8	32.2	28.3	234	247
12. Ngada	17.5	16.8	7.7	9.0	14.4	21.9	18.6	42.7	32.8	27.7	17.6	22.6	44	136
13. Manggarai	18.7	18.5	17.0	14.2	39.7	44.5	65.3	61.7	31.9	32.4	32.9	33.0	242	296
71. Kupang	19.8	9.7	5.4	2.5	24.8	19.8	0.5	6.4	29.3	33.9	16.7	14.4	36	29
61. West Kalimantan	18.6	18.1	16.8	13.1	78.4	78.5	43.3	50.1	42.0	33.2	38.7	38.0	30	
01. Sambas*	33.7	31.0	18.0	10.7	70.2	70.3	33.6	51.3	39.3	28.7	37.1	37.4	277	323
02. Bengkayang	13.5		16.5		43.6		42.0		33.4		28.5		251	
03. Landak	20.0		13.0		80.6		65.1		45.9		44.9		339	
04. Pontianak*	17.7	15.2	16.6	12.6	87.4	92.3	41.3	34.7	48.1	34.7	41.5	37.8	286	325
05. Sanggau	14.5	14.8	18.2	16.1	78.6	77.9	69.5	67.7	51.2	28.3	46.5	40.7	293	334
06. Ketapang	17.1	16.6	16.0	10.6	69.0	69.3	48.0	50.9	38.2	39.0	36.6	37.3	276	321
07. Sintang	15.3	14.4	20.4	17.2	75.3	75.3	57.2	78.7	41.2	31.6	41.0	43.4	285	337
08. Kapuas Hulu	17.8	16.5	17.2	14.9	85.8	80.4	60.7	83.3	39.9	40.1	43.7	47.5	291	340
71. Pontianak	16.7	16.6	11.1	8.3	85.4	85.5	3.6		30.5	25.6	27.7	27.3	171	226

Province District	People not expected to survive to age 40 (%)		Adult Illiteracy rate (%)		Population without access to clean water (%)		Population without access to health facilities (%)		Under- nourished children under five (%)		HPI		HPI Ranking	
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002
62. Central Kalimantan	10.4	10.2	5.2	3.6	68.2	66.7	26.2	33.6	30.5	31.9	29.0	30.7	27	
01. West Kotawaringin	10.2	9.1	6.9	5.8	40.6	56.6	26.2	38.1	22.2	59.6	20.9	35.7	72	314
02. East Kotawaringin	12.2	12.2	6.6	3.6	80.5	64.3	22.5	27.2	30.9	34.6	31.2	29.4	220	260
03. Kapuas	9.9	9.8	5.0	3.9	71.4	73.1	31.6	60.4	26.8	26.8	30.1	37.1	205	320
04. South Barito	15.1	14.2	3.3	3.1	55.5	67.2	42.7	34.3	51.7	17.8	35.0	28.0	263	241
05. North Barito	8.9	8.0	4.7	3.0	73.1	76.4	60.8	16.6	23.6	23.2	36.5	26.9	274	218
71. Palangka Raya	6.7	6.1	1.9	1.2	71.3	59.8	0.5	0.6	34.2	23.8	24.6	19.5	123	83
63. South Kalimantan	24.5	23.9	7.2	6.7	46.7	41.5	16.2	27.3	29.0	30.2	24.4	25.5	19	
01. Tanah Laut	15.0	14.5	14.2	8.3	53.0	50.1	29.0	20.8	28.2	25.1	26.5	23.0	154	148
02. Kota Baru	23.3	21.1	8.8	8.6	34.6	25.4	16.2	27.3	19.3	28.8	20.6	21.6	66	118
03. Banjar*	22.0	22.1	4.5	7.4	58.9	61.2	23.5	23.9	27.3	21.3	27.1	26.5	162	208
04. Barito Kuala	31.5	30.8	9.2	8.5	90.4	72.6	59.2	31.5	30.1	31.7	43.5	34.5	290	309
05. Tapin	17.6	17.3	6.9	7.4	48.8	43.1	16.2	27.3	29.0	32.1	23.0	24.7	102	179
06. South Hulu Sungai	24.7	24.0	8.0	6.6	64.5	52.5	16.2	33.8	29.0	41.2	27.8	31.2	175	282
07. Central Hulu Sungai	22.8	22.2	9.0	5.1	57.7	51.3	16.2	32.1	29.0	28.2	26.0	27.5	146	232
08. North Hulu Sungai	28.3	27.7	6.8	6.8	49.6	51.6	28.1	16.4	29.0	34.9	28.3	27.4	181	229
09. Tabalong	24.4	24.1	8.3	7.3	43.7	34.4	5.3	8.9	29.0	30.3	22.2	21.3	93	116
71. Banjarmasin	17.8	17.4	3.8	4.7	4.8	4.6		1.2	38.6	34.2	14.3	13.7	22	23
72. Banjar Baru		14.7		2.1		44.3		11.7		27.4		20.2		96
64. East Kalimantan	10.7	10.2	6.5	4.8	35.8	37.3	19.6	22.2	31.9	21.5	20.6	19.1	5	
01. Pasir	8.6	7.8	13.2	10.6	55.7	43.2	24.7	49.9	23.3	33.5	24.5	29.5	119	262
02. West Kutai		10.7		6.8		74.0		35.0		26.0		31.4		284
03. Kutai*	15.3	14.9	6.4	4.3	43.4	49.8	31.4	28.8	34.8	16.4	26.0	22.7	146	142
04. East Kutai		13.6		5.5		49.8		29.6		22.8		24.1		168
05. Berau	12.7	11.6	9.7	6.0	52.0	58.1	21.5	24.3	32.3	24.0	25.0	24.9	131	184
06. Malinau		13.4		10.7		77.6		9.4		44.1		30.7		270
07. Bulongan*	7.8	7.2	8.3	6.7	62.2	69.4	18.9	21.4	28.1	43.1	25.4	31.0	137	278
08. Nunukan		9.9		7.8		65.0		22.1		10.4		22.8		145
71. Balikpapan	9.2	8.5	4.5	3.7	8.0	7.0	0.5	8.5	31.7	13.0	10.3	8.0	5	1
72. Samarinda	11.3	10.6	3.9	2.6	18.9	15.7	12.0	10.6	34.6	19.0	15.8	11.6	31	13
73. Tarakan		8.4		1.1		63.5		18.8		32.8		26.7		211
74. Bontang		7.8		1.7		13.1		37.9		24.6		17.6		62
71. North Sulawesi	12.0	8.4	2.8	1.2	44.5	35.7	26.1	18.4	25.8	21.9	22.7	17.8	4	
01. Bolaang Mongondow	9.6	9.5	3.8	2.4	39.1	44.0	16.7	24.4	27.4	28.9	19.5	22.7	54	140
02. Minahasa	8.8	7.8	1.0	0.6	33.9	37.6	20.7	38.0	20.0	14.0	17.5	20.8	43	106
03. Sangihe Talaud	8.0	7.3	4.6	2.3	45.8	47.6	42.6	5.7	22.7	23.3	25.8	17.8	141	65
71. Manado	8.4	7.7	0.3	0.2	38.4	21.0	23.9	0.4	21.5	26.0	19.5	11.4	54	12
72. Bitung	12.7	10.1	2.2	1.7	35.5	21.8		5.7	29.9	30.5	16.1	14.0	32	26
72. Central Sulawesi	21.2	20.1	7.4	6.7	51.7	53.8	30.2	36.8	34.9	29.6	28.4	28.9	25	
01. Banggai Kepulauan		25.7		7.8		37.9		75.0		29.4		34.6		311
02. Banggai*	19.7	13.5	8.6	8.6	36.0	43.5	25.0	40.5	30.9	27.4	23.1	26.3	104	205
03. Morowali		19.6		4.8		51.7		64.6		28.0		34.1		304
04. Poso*	24.0	23.5	3.8	3.2	45.8	47.1	43.6	35.8	32.7	29.1	30.0	27.9	203	240
05. Donggala	25.4	22.9	10.6	9.6	57.7	62.3	34.8	36.9	38.9	27.6	32.4	30.9	235	275
06. Toli-Toli		23.4		4.6		57.0		36.2		36.2		31.4		286
Buol Toli-toli	22.5		8.0		54.3		35.0		33.5		29.9		201	
07. Buol		21.6		3.6		59.7		50.0		37.4		34.9		312
71. Kodya Palu	14.7	13.7	1.9	1.9	70.1	64.0	5.7	4.7	30.9	31.7	25.2	23.7		163

Province District	People not expected to survive to age 40 (%)		Adult Illiteracy rate (%)		Population without access to clean water (%)		Population without access to health facilities (%)		Under- nourished children under five (%)		HPI		HPI Ranking	
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002
73. South Sulawesi	11.7	11.3	16.8	16.5	49.1	45.1	26.0	27.3	33.9	29.1	26.3	24.6	14	
01. Selayar	15.0	14.5	15.8	14.1	73.1	80.8	20.5	50.0	37.5	32.2	16.9	38.1	220	327
02. Bulukumba	11.5	11.3	20.4	19.9	48.5	44.5	42.7	26.4	33.9	28.4	35.5	24.8	208	181
03. Bantaeng	8.3	7.7	29.5	29.3	42.3	38.8	33.9	12.5	47.1	37.9	32.9	25.8	227	199
04. Jenepono	19.0	18.5	31.2	34.0	66.6	61.2	22.1	35.2	48.2	30.7	31.1	34.4	268	307
05. Takalar	14.1	13.8	23.2	21.2	58.8	54.0	33.9	32.3	45.2	27.6	35.1	28.2	250	243
06. Gowa	9.4	8.8	23.1	24.3	63.9	41.8	39.7	37.0	44.9	27.2	34.4	27.0	270	220
07. Sinjai	10.0	9.6	21.5	18.2	41.5	47.9	27.3	42.4	21.5	32.1	27.7	29.2	106	259
08. Maros	11.2	10.2	23.2	20.7	64.7	48.0	28.2	23.4	34.0	42.6	26.4	27.9	215	238
09. Pangkajene Kepulauan	13.4	13.2	17.4	19.1	50.1	44.2	45.0	26.6	44.1	46.0	36.2	28.3	246	248
10. Barru	14.1	13.6	16.2	13.5	61.8	61.4	37.1	27.1	26.6	33.0	27.4	28.8	201	253
11. Bone	13.3	13.1	19.0	18.7	50.3	53.9	30.8	40.0	24.5	27.2	28.4	29.2	146	258
12. Soppeng	8.5	8.2	21.8	12.0	56.2	51.6	50.0	11.6	31.6	15.6	31.7	18.9	246	78
13. Wajo	13.3	13.6	23.9	17.5	67.2	49.4	22.4	21.3	29.1	18.1	27.5	22.4	197	129
14. Sidenreng Rappang	10.0	10.0	17.2	15.4	60.8	49.9	20.6	10.9	31.5	34.1	28.4	23.0	162	149
15. Pinrang	11.3	10.7	17.3	13.9	64.6	46.9	19.9	15.9	43.0	29.9	29.5	22.3	211	127
16. Enrekang	6.9	6.3	10.3	15.0	51.8	46.7	39.7	41.7	28.3	17.1	30.8	25.0	176	189
17. Luwu*	7.5	7.4	8.0	11.7	44.9	41.4	38.4	40.3	31.7	30.8	28.3	26.3	158	207
18. Tana Toraja	5.9	5.5	26.7	17.1	22.3	43.5	33.1	34.9	38.1	39.7	29.5	28.0	139	242
19. Polewali Mamasa	20.8	20.5	19.1	19.6	52.0	57.2	33.9	13.0	29.0	35.3	23.5	27.1	190	222
20. Majene	22.0	21.9	10.5	7.8	57.1	55.9	33.9	43.8	33.4	30.7	29.2	31.4	211	287
21. Mamuju	13.7	13.6	15.9	16.6	68.1	58.0	66.4	17.7	38.2	22.8	37.9	24.2	284	170
22. North Luwu		9.6		8.7		52.3		49.6		27.9		30.2		267
71. Ujung Pandang	7.5	7.2	4.8	5.3	18.1	8.0	1.9	5.6	27.2	24.3	11.4	9.5	8	5
72. Pare Pare	7.0	6.4	5.8	5.5	51.0	35.4		1.6	41.3	33.2	21.5	16.4	82	48
74. South East Sulawesi	17.0	16.8	12.9	11.8	43.6	41.3	21.3	37.4	27.1	28.3	22.9	25.8	20	
01. Buton	15.1	14.9	14.8	15.8	43.2	40.9	15.6	16.8	25.5	33.9	21.3	22.8	79	144
02. Muna	18.8	18.1	16.8	18.1	41.2	43.2	27.1	39.3	35.6	26.4	26.0	27.1	146	221
03. Kendari	16.7	16.0	13.1	7.4	47.8	36.6	48.9	53.5	24.4	22.4	28.9	26.7	190	212
04. Kolaka	17.5	17.0	12.7	8.9	45.6	43.2	14.5	25.5	25.5	31.1	21.7	24.2	86	169
71. Kendari	16.7	12.7	2.9	3.2	31.3	22.3	0.0	14.5	24.4	23.6	15.5	15.0	28	30
75. Gorontalo		18.5		4.8		62.4		32.7		42.0		32.4	29	
01. Boalemo		15.2		6.0		74.1		41.7		49.7		38.5		330
02. Gorontalo*	16.9	15.5	5.7	5.4	65.0	63.8	39.3	38.5	32.5	40.1	32.2	33.3	234	297
71. Gorontalo	18.0	17.5	1.1	1.1	46.1	40.7	15.3	3.0	30.1	38.0	22.5	20.4	95	99
81. Maluku*	13.1	16.2	4.2	3.7	52.1	43.9	23.8	26.1	29.3	25.2	24.7	22.9	10	
01. West South-East Maluku		25.1		1.6		47.4		30.8		17.3		25.2		190
02. South-East Maluku*	9.1	14.3	3.7	2.0	62.4	51.6	25.5	28.0	17.3	14.6	24.4	22.4	119	130
03. Central Maluku*	19.1	18.5	3.2	2.6	58.2	38.4	16.8	18.4	29.3	25.2	25.4	20.7	137	105
04. Buru		16.2		15.4		60.2		18.0		29.3		26.2		204
71. Ambon	7.6	7.1	0.1	1.1	29.6	24.5	0.0	15.3	43.0	37.0	17.0	17.9	39	67
82. North Maluku		20.7		4.2		43.2		42.2		29.6		27.9	22	
01. North Maluku*	15.7	21.1	6.4	4.4	54.7	60.7	47.4	52.2	33.6	28.9	12.6	33.7	228	302
02. Central Halmahera	15.9	19.9	9.8	5.3	42.2	43.5	20.3	22.3	21.7	17.7	9.8	21.4	71	117
71. Ternate		12.9		2.4		22.1		52.2		33.6		25.3		192

Province District	People not expected to survive to age 40 (%)		Adult Illiteracy rate (%)		Population without access to clean water (%)		Population without access to health facilities (%)		Under- nourished children under five (%)		HPI		HPI Ranking	
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002
91. Papua	17.8	16.8	28.8	25.6	54.5	61.6	36.0	36.1	28.3	24.3	31.3	30.9	28	
01. Merauke	30.9	27.4	20.9	15.6	65.8	78.9	41.2	41.3	28.3	24.3	35.2	35.7	265	313
02. Jayawijaya	18.1	17.5	64.0	68.0	44.2	61.6	44.8	44.9	26.3	24.3	47.7	51.2	294	341
03. Jayapura	16.0	15.9	9.7	11.2	44.6	60.3	31.2	31.3	28.3	24.3	25.0	27.6	131	233
04. Nabire		14.9		24.5		92.4		35.6		28.5		37.6		324
05. Paniai*	15.2	14.9	50.2	37.3	75.4	57.1	35.5	35.6	29.2	28.5	42.6	34.3	288	306
06. Puncak Jaya		15.1		13.4		70.9		35.6		28.5		31.8		290
07. Fak Fak*	12.1	11.1	5.1	13.6	59.1	53.5	35.7	35.8	28.3	24.3	28.7	26.9	186	216
08. Mimika		11.9		15.8		69.4		35.8		24.3		30.6		269
09. Sorong	18.6	17.3	11.8	12.7	55.2	57.8	32.2	32.2	32.3	27.8	28.8	28.3	188	245
10. Manokwari	15.1	14.9	25.9	37.5	55.3	86.7	71.3	37.6	28.3	24.3	37.5	39.0	278	332
11. Yapen Waropen	21.0	20.5	14.5	34.1	69.4	89.6	36.0	36.1	30.0	25.8	32.6	38.9	238	331
12. Biak Numfor	18.6	18.1	5.4	9.8	50.0	74.8	31.2	31.3	28.3	24.3	26.4	30.9	152	276
71. Jayapura	14.2	13.7	3.2	5.1	25.5	9.5	0.0	15.5	28.3	24.3	14.2	14.0	21	25
72. Sorong		11.4		1.4		21.0		31.1		27.8		19.9		91
Indonesia	15.2	15.0	11.6	10.5	51.9	44.8	21.6	23.1	30.0	25.8	25.2	22.7		

Notes:

1. Nangroe Aceh Darussalam, Maluku, North Maluku and Papua use 2003 data for adult literacy and access to clean water.
 2. The number before each province or district is the official area code. District refers to both regency (kabupaten) and city (kota). Where two districts have the same name, the one with a code number above 70 is a city.
 3. Data for population without access to health facilities is for 2001.
- * This province or district lost part of its area between 1999 and 2002. For a list of boundary changes, see page 95.

Source: BPS special tabulation

12

Health Conditions by district, 2002

Province District	Infant mortality rate (per 1,000)	Population with health problems (%)	Morbidity rate (%)	Average duration of illness (days)	Population self-medicating (%)	Birth delivery assisted by medical personnel (%)
11. Nangroe Aceh Darussalam	36.1	24.6	13.0	5.0	57.1	74.2
01. Simeulue	60.6	8.0	2.5	12.5	65.9	42.8
02. Aceh Singkil	58.4	19.5	10.4	5.5	57.0	66.8
03. South Aceh	50.0	26.0	15.2	9.2	66.0	65.3
04. South East Aceh	34.8	12.9	9.7	4.9	80.8	80.8
05. East Aceh	36.5	26.8	14.9	5.2	59.0	85.3
06. Central Aceh	39.9	30.6	17.2	5.6	87.0	59.8
07. West Aceh	35.7	20.0	9.9	3.8	59.5	50.9
08. Aceh Besar	30.5	16.4	4.7	4.5	23.1	90.6
09. Pidie	37.2	32.2	15.9	4.4	36.6	84.2
10. Bireuen	19.8	35.1	18.7	3.5	80.3	74.7
11. North Aceh	32.6	19.4	11.6	3.9	42.7	72.3
71. Banda Aceh	34.1	18.8	10.2	6.7	60.2	98.2
72. Sabang	34.7	25.6	13.3	6.1	62.8	81.2
12. North Sumatera	40.0	16.0	9.7	6.4	53.2	84.6
01. Nias	40.9	17.9	5.4	4.0	48.7	49.5
02. Mandailing Natal	61.3	19.5	12.3	6.5	57.5	52.5
03. South Tapanuli	47.6	15.6	7.6	5.0	47.2	79.2
04. Central Tapanuli	46.3	21.7	13.6	8.5	53.5	79.1
05. North Tapanuli	47.0	18.3	8.4	7.2	48.7	82.8
06. Toba Samosir	40.5	20.4	17.5	5.4	73.3	86.5
07. Labuhan Batu	44.9	15.8	9.0	5.6	57.6	78.6
08. Asahan	39.3	16.3	12.1	7.0	57.4	79.2
09. Simalungun	39.6	12.4	8.6	10.1	56.9	87.0
10. Dairi	44.9	25.5	14.2	4.5	52.1	80.3
11. Karo	25.3	15.9	11.2	5.0	60.8	99.6
12. Deli Serdang	43.1	19.7	12.4	6.7	46.2	93.6
13. Langkat	39.7	12.9	7.0	5.0	54.2	93.6
71. Sibolga	33.7	12.4	8.3	6.4	57.4	95.6
72. Tanjung Balai	40.7	11.8	6.5	6.2	51.3	96.1
73. Pematang Siantar	25.5	10.4	6.3	7.2	68.0	98.7
74. Tebing Tinggi	28.8	18.1	7.7	5.0	64.8	99.0
75. Medan	30.8	11.3	7.9	6.3	53.1	98.4
76. Binjai	30.8	16.8	10.5	5.4	56.8	94.3
13. West Sumatera	47.4	27.5	16.9	6.6	55.2	84.9
01. Kepulauan Mentawai	39.7	17.5	12.2	3.2	59.7	67.5
02. Pesisir Selatan	49.6	7.8	5.4	7.5	35.8	82.2
03. Solok	63.3	40.4	24.6	6.8	67.6	64.1
04. Sawah Lunto/Sijunjung	66.9	38.2	21.8	6.9	53.3	66.9
05. Tanah Datar	38.8	33.1	19.6	6.3	52.7	95.4
06. Padang Pariaman	48.8	37.3	27.0	6.2	65.8	84.7
07. Agam	38.8	33.0	16.7	7.4	48.4	93.9
08. Limapuluh Koto	47.1	26.9	17.3	6.5	47.5	93.0
09. Pasaman	60.8	27.3	19.8	6.9	61.7	77.8
71. Padang	33.1	12.2	6.7	6.5	42.3	97.4
72. Solok	43.0	28.7	18.8	6.3	32.7	96.4
73. Sawah Lunto	28.2	41.1	24.1	7.4	60.9	87.7
74. Padang Panjang	30.4	39.1	18.8	6.2	51.8	100.0
75. Bukit Tinggi	29.8	31.5	15.2	5.5	36.7	98.9
76. Payakumbuh	41.3	38.1	20.2	5.8	49.3	98.5

Province District	Infant mortality rate (per 1,000)	Population with health problems (%)	Morbidity rate (%)	Average duration of illness (days)	Population self-medicating (%)	Birth delivery assisted by medical personnel (%)
14. Riau	36.9	17.4	10.1	5.1	65.5	78.7
01. Kuantan Sengingi	47.7	25.7	13.2	4.8	63.5	79.3
02. Indragiri Hulu	48.4	12.2	7.6	5.6	68.0	60.5
03. Indragiri Hilir	35.7	10.8	6.6	4.7	75.6	49.0
04. Pelalawan	42.8	29.5	17.3	5.9	69.6	63.8
05. Siak	26.7	7.7	4.2	4.4	42.5	92.4
06. Kampar	44.5	18.7	11.7	6.3	73.5	80.5
07. Rokan Hulu	55.6	22.3	14.4	7.1	71.6	60.4
08. Bengkalis	31.9	17.3	11.5	3.3	75.9	75.0
09. Rokan Hilir	44.0	8.5	5.5	5.4	55.8	71.8
10. Kepulauan Riau	33.0	16.4	10.3	5.3	67.7	80.0
11. Karimun	33.9	16.7	10.2	5.1	58.0	92.0
12. Natuna	45.0	10.6	5.3	4.9	54.6	74.5
71. Pekanbaru	28.0	21.6	9.6	5.7	53.8	97.4
72. Batam	29.8	21.3	11.8	4.0	62.7	97.4
73. Dumai	29.4	26.5	15.6	5.3	70.2	83.0
15. Jambi	43.4	18.8	12.3	5.8	60.5	61.6
01. Kerinci	32.6	26.9	20.6	7.2	66.9	64.8
02. Merangin	43.3	28.1	15.3	4.2	63.2	46.4
03. Sarolangun	41.8	19.9	11.2	5.9	61.5	48.5
04. Batanghari	43.7	12.5	7.2	4.6	72.9	56.1
05. Muara Jambi	43.0	7.5	4.5	8.6	43.4	57.5
06. East Tanjung Jabung	59.1	16.9	9.6	5.6	65.0	32.7
07. West Tanjung Jabung	48.2	20.2	15.0	4.0	60.7	46.3
08. Tebo	45.6	23.2	14.4	6.1	55.4	72.3
09. Bungo	58.7	26.7	19.8	6.9	60.3	49.9
71. Jambi	32.9	9.9	6.7	5.0	46.4	97.9
16. South Sumatera	45.7	20.4	10.1	5.4	57.5	69.4
01. Ogan Komering Ulu	36.8	13.9	8.6	7.0	66.5	60.1
02. Ogan Komering Hilir	57.7	18.2	9.8	6.1	61.1	61.9
03. Muara Enim (Liot)	51.7	25.3	11.4	4.4	53.8	64.9
04. Lahat	53.5	18.6	9.6	6.9	61.6	51.1
05. Musi Rawas	62.4	22.1	8.5	6.2	51.2	73.2
06. Musi Banyuasin	40.8	20.4	10.0	3.9	48.4	64.4
71. Palembang	34.8	25.0	12.0	4.7	60.9	94.7
17. Bengkulu	47.9	18.6	11.4	5.2	53.0	74.8
01. South Bengkulu	51.7	22.2	13.6	5.3	55.8	69.0
02. Rejang Lebong	58.6	11.1	6.5	6.3	50.6	75.9
03. North Bengkulu	45.0	22.5	15.0	4.8	54.0	68.9
71. Bengkulu	31.0	19.3	10.3	5.1	48.9	89.9
18. Lampung	43.0	23.6	13.0	5.6	67.8	61.6
01. West Lampung	53.6	17.1	10.3	6.5	66.7	50.9
02. Tanggamus	44.4	33.2	20.5	4.6	67.1	73.9
03. South Lampung	47.7	23.1	10.9	6.5	70.9	46.0
04. East Lampung	35.7	27.6	16.2	5.2	78.5	70.6
05. Central Lampung	39.4	19.1	8.4	6.2	54.8	59.2
06. North Lampung	46.9	21.9	10.0	5.2	46.4	51.2
07. Way Kanan	43.0	22.7	15.3	5.6	82.8	52.4
08. Tulang Bawang	49.8	22.7	16.8	5.9	74.9	47.8
71. Bandar Lampung	36.8	23.7	11.0	5.4	65.2	89.3
72. Metro	22.5	12.0	6.9	4.6	66.0	97.8

Province District	Infant mortality rate (per 1,000)	Population with health problems (%)	Morbidity rate (%)	Average duration of illness (days)	Population self-medicating (%)	Birth delivery assisted by medical personnel (%)
19. Bangka Belitung	41.8	30.7	16.5	5.2	67.8	72.5
01. Bangka	43.9	30.4	17.0	4.8	68.8	68.2
02. Belitung	39.5	32.5	16.4	5.1	66.9	75.7
71. Pangkal Pinang	36.3	29.4	14.1	7.3	64.5	87.1
31. DKI Jakarta	21.8	28.9	15.2	4.7	60.3	97.1
71. South Jakarta	22.8	29.7	16.0	4.5	58.0	96.8
72. East Jakarta	20.2	24.7	11.1	4.7	55.2	97.7
73. Central Jakarta	26.1	31.1	14.0	4.6	64.1	97.1
74. West Jakarta	21.1	29.1	19.7	5.0	54.1	96.6
75. North Jakarta	21.4	33.2	15.9	4.4	74.0	97.0
32. West Java	47.0	24.7	13.7	6.0	64.9	54.6
01. Bogor	43.9	26.1	15.1	6.1	63.1	37.7
02. Sukabumi	57.0	30.4	14.3	6.1	69.3	22.0
03. Cianjur	52.4	26.0	18.5	5.3	69.4	18.1
04. Bandung	40.9	21.3	13.0	5.9	63.5	50.0
05. Garut	70.9	20.9	13.7	6.2	64.4	36.5
06. Tasikmalaya	44.1	26.3	15.4	6.6	58.4	60.5
07. Ciamis	52.7	36.9	16.9	6.1	62.8	56.5
08. Kuningan	48.4	26.2	15.6	6.0	58.4	76.9
09. Cirebon	55.5	20.5	9.7	6.9	71.7	66.7
10. Majalengka	54.7	26.2	12.2	6.1	70.0	65.7
11. Sumedang	41.5	28.7	15.7	7.3	61.9	62.6
12. Indramayu	53.8	30.8	17.3	6.7	72.7	50.1
13. Subang	46.1	26.1	12.8	6.1	71.5	54.2
14. Purwakarta	52.4	27.6	18.7	5.3	80.4	51.3
15. Karawang	57.6	29.2	16.7	4.6	76.5	63.3
16. Bekasi	40.0	24.1	11.3	5.1	58.5	79.3
71. Bogor	37.7	10.7	5.9	6.1	47.0	74.0
72. Sukabumi	43.7	23.8	12.9	6.2	50.3	70.2
73. Bandung	33.0	18.7	9.2	7.0	54.4	82.6
74. Cirebon	37.7	31.4	16.8	5.1	73.3	90.8
75. Bekasi	35.6	15.4	8.6	5.0	60.4	94.5
76. Depok	22.5	25.0	13.0	5.4	51.1	85.6
33. Central Java	34.1	31.0	16.8	5.6	59.7	69.8
01. Cilacap	37.1	32.0	18.5	5.5	68.4	71.8
02. Banyumas	33.7	39.1	20.8	5.4	63.3	59.6
03. Purbalingga	37.6	35.6	25.1	6.3	51.0	52.7
04. Banjarnegara	37.1	30.5	15.6	5.5	50.2	35.8
05. Kebumen	37.8	29.3	19.8	6.3	60.8	53.2
06. Purworejo	36.3	29.8	14.2	6.0	42.5	83.0
07. Wonosobo	34.3	24.6	13.1	6.4	56.4	46.1
08. Magelang	33.0	33.2	16.2	5.7	55.2	69.4
09. Boyolali	30.1	23.0	11.2	6.0	56.3	80.2
10. Klaten	29.5	29.5	16.9	5.6	59.7	92.2
11. Sukoharjo	31.4	35.3	16.1	6.1	54.6	96.8
12. Wonogiri	23.3	22.2	12.1	7.2	50.4	80.4
13. Karanganyar	22.6	31.3	12.6	5.1	60.0	94.9
14. Sragen	23.7	26.5	15.2	5.7	57.2	85.4
15. Grobogan	35.5	31.4	17.6	4.5	61.7	75.1
16. Blora	27.8	20.3	12.3	5.9	61.0	53.8
17. Rembang	33.8	25.3	17.0	5.3	51.2	78.8

Province District	Infant mortality rate (per 1,000)	Population with health problems (%)	Morbidity rate (%)	Average duration of illness (days)	Population self-medicating (%)	Birth delivery assisted by medical personnel (%)
18. Pati	20.4	29.5	17.1	4.6	52.0	70.1
19. Kudus	35.3	23.7	11.7	4.9	56.9	74.1
20. Jepara	28.5	26.3	16.7	5.4	54.3	66.9
21. Demak	32.8	26.9	16.3	6.2	51.9	59.4
22. Semarang	24.4	24.8	12.7	6.1	63.1	82.3
23. Temanggung	23.9	29.5	14.1	5.9	57.2	64.3
24. Kendal	48.7	29.9	17.9	6.0	55.7	70.6
25. Batang	33.5	44.8	20.6	5.2	56.1	63.3
26. Pekalongan	41.7	37.9	19.5	5.1	63.8	54.2
27. Pemalang	47.8	29.6	12.8	5.8	63.6	56.3
28. Tegal	43.7	38.3	17.7	5.0	70.2	62.3
29. Brebes	51.6	40.8	24.6	5.6	68.0	63.6
71. Magelang	31.3	30.5	14.2	6.9	59.7	97.2
72. Surakarta	24.7	33.0	19.8	5.1	54.9	99.4
73. Salatiga	28.1	25.0	13.6	6.0	58.2	94.3
74. Semarang	27.4	34.1	17.8	4.9	67.5	96.2
75. Pekalongan	33.8	25.3	10.6	4.4	59.2	86.3
76. Tegal	40.7	17.5	12.3	5.5	70.4	88.8
34. D. I. Yogyakarta	23.3	34.5	17.6	5.6	55.7	87.2
01. Kulon Progo	19.8	36.1	16.1	6.5	56.0	80.1
02. Bantul	27.4	39.0	20.3	5.2	53.9	88.5
03. Gunung Kidul	27.8	38.1	19.9	5.9	52.2	79.2
04. Sleman	19.9	26.6	14.2	5.7	55.6	90.4
71. Yogyakarta	19.0	36.5	17.4	5.5	65.5	99.1
35. East Java	47.0	29.5	18.3	6.1	62.8	72.2
01. Pacitan	29.2	24.6	12.7	6.8	65.2	74.9
02. Ponorogo	40.5	31.6	19.9	6.7	55.6	72.0
03. Trenggalek	30.6	27.7	21.5	6.3	62.4	65.0
04. Tulungagung	27.7	30.5	21.5	5.8	66.7	82.9
05. Blitar	32.9	33.2	23.0	6.7	58.6	85.8
06. Kediri	36.6	33.5	19.4	5.3	66.5	83.7
07. Malang	43.0	30.2	19.1	7.2	58.6	77.2
08. Lumajang	48.3	24.7	17.3	6.8	66.5	71.1
09. Jember	72.1	26.5	15.7	6.0	74.0	43.6
10. Banyuwangi	50.8	36.2	20.9	5.6	67.9	74.2
11. Bondowoso	74.9	33.0	24.6	7.3	64.2	38.4
12. Situbondo	63.3	50.3	23.9	7.0	61.7	51.5
13. Probolinggo	73.5	29.8	20.7	6.2	60.2	43.2
14. Pasuruan	63.7	22.6	14.7	6.6	53.7	72.6
15. Sidoarjo	36.3	26.2	14.7	4.9	62.7	96.8
16. Mojokerto	35.8	43.3	29.8	5.8	59.9	85.3
17. Jombang	41.9	37.5	27.5	5.6	61.3	86.4
18. Nganjuk	39.5	33.7	23.3	6.3	69.5	81.6
19. Madiun	38.8	22.5	14.8	6.1	52.9	92.9
20. Magetan	29.9	17.7	12.3	8.1	46.9	91.3
21. Ngawi	40.2	23.7	13.1	5.3	55.3	72.9
22. Bojonegoro	46.0	28.8	17.1	5.1	65.8	54.4
23. Tuban	44.7	32.3	18.9	6.0	72.2	59.8
24. Lamongan	42.2	26.1	14.3	5.4	54.4	74.7
25. Gresik	35.8	25.6	16.3	6.9	53.3	93.0
26. Bangkalan	63.8	22.8	14.9	6.4	64.4	47.3
27. Sampang	82.1	29.0	17.7	5.7	76.0	25.8
28. Pamekasan	62.8	28.3	20.6	6.2	72.2	36.8
29. Sumenep	66.6	30.2	17.2	7.3	58.9	35.2

Province District	Infant mortality rate (per 1,000)	Population with health problems (%)	Morbidity rate (%)	Average duration of illness (days)	Population self-medicating (%)	Birth delivery assisted by medical personnel (%)
71. Kediri	34.7	35.6	23.7	5.1	60.4	96.8
72. Blitar	28.5	29.2	20.7	6.1	71.7	93.7
73. Malang	43.9	37.9	21.6	5.5	64.0	95.5
74. Probolinggo	36.2	28.3	18.2	5.6	64.3	70.2
75. Pasuruan	49.7	22.9	13.2	6.1	54.9	88.1
76. Mojokerto	28.4	35.0	18.1	5.3	67.5	93.3
77. Madiun	32.1	31.4	19.9	6.5	60.8	98.2
78. Surabaya	34.9	23.9	12.3	5.6	58.8	96.0
36. Banten	54.7	22.1	12.3	5.4	58.5	56.6
01. Pandeglang	61.2	21.1	12.5	6.0	62.9	18.6
02. Lebak	59.9	21.3	9.7	5.1	50.1	35.5
03. Tangerang	52.0	23.6	14.4	5.5	59.0	74.5
04. Serang	67.6	18.2	9.8	5.9	54.1	36.6
71. Tangerang	38.5	27.2	14.0	4.4	63.4	90.8
72. Cilegon	38.8	11.3	6.5	5.8	58.2	79.6
51. Bali	29.2	30.1	20.1	5.4	43.6	92.4
01. Jembrana	26.9	38.6	30.9	4.6	56.8	78.8
02. Tabanan	16.6	29.6	22.6	5.9	44.5	96.4
03. Badung	24.9	20.7	16.0	5.1	40.7	100.0
04. Gianyar	23.7	28.9	18.7	4.5	27.4	99.6
05. Klungkung	38.8	22.9	14.7	4.7	40.1	91.9
06. Bangli	23.5	32.3	24.1	5.1	39.4	91.6
07. Karangasem	41.9	31.1	18.3	5.6	27.1	77.7
08. Buleleng	44.1	36.9	25.3	6.4	54.8	89.0
71. Denpasar	20.8	27.5	13.6	4.8	48.2	97.1
52. West Nusa Tenggara	78.0	35.7	23.6	6.5	55.2	49.9
01. West Lombok	80.1	27.6	20.7	6.8	46.2	57.5
02. Central Lombok	81.9	40.1	29.9	6.8	60.3	51.7
03. East Lombok	81.3	37.0	21.3	6.3	52.7	49.4
04. Sumbawa	79.2	36.5	22.5	5.8	57.0	56.8
05. Dompu	72.7	26.3	19.0	6.8	61.8	33.1
06. Bima	76.7	36.7	25.9	6.3	53.1	33.5
71. Mataram	56.7	39.7	23.6	6.3	63.4	69.4
53. East Nusa Tenggara	51.0	35.7	26.2	6.4	47.5	37.3
01. West Sumba	59.6	35.2	28.1	6.3	36.8	32.0
02. East Sumba	73.0	55.8	48.9	6.4	50.6	29.4
03. Kupang	51.7	38.2	30.3	7.0	43.6	18.4
04. Southern Central Timor	45.8	18.6	11.5	5.0	25.7	26.4
05. Northern Central Timor	48.7	30.4	22.6	6.6	28.2	48.7
06. Belu	55.0	29.8	25.4	7.1	43.3	39.1
07. Alor	56.7	37.2	28.4	5.9	62.8	23.5
08. Lembata	48.9	43.5	32.4	4.3	32.0	63.6
09. East Flores	43.9	42.6	32.3	6.1	50.7	61.9
10. Sikka	44.8	40.8	23.7	6.7	50.6	58.0
11. Ende	56.5	36.6	25.5	5.1	54.1	54.3
12. Ngada	48.0	43.1	30.1	7.6	40.6	57.9
13. Manggarai	52.1	35.9	25.6	6.9	65.5	21.9
71. Kupang	29.4	32.6	18.9	6.1	45.3	69.5

Province District	Infant mortality rate (per 1,000)	Population with health problems (%)	Morbidity rate (%)	Average duration of illness (days)	Population self-medicating (%)	Birth delivery assisted by medical personnel (%)
61. West Kalimantan	52.1	26.0	15.0	5.4	61.0	54.0
01. Sambas	79.6	35.6	20.8	4.8	76.3	50.0
02. Bengkayang	39.7	25.7	13.9	7.0	47.7	61.1
03. Landak	64.8	26.7	16.4	5.6	68.1	34.7
04. Pontianak	49.8	22.5	12.6	5.9	44.4	56.8
05. Sanggau	43.0	22.2	13.4	4.6	73.9	39.4
06. Ketapang	47.5	22.7	13.8	5.6	74.0	46.2
07. Sintang	42.1	25.8	13.4	5.1	58.1	69.0
08. Kapuas Hulu	47.4	33.1	20.0	4.1	52.6	48.5
71. Pontianak	47.6	26.0	13.8	6.1	44.6	85.5
62. Central Kalimantan	31.3	17.6	10.2	4.5	69.9	61.1
01. West Kotawaringin	27.8	17.2	8.8	4.0	66.2	75.9
02. East Kotawaringin	36.1	18.1	12.7	4.3	67.8	48.1
03. Kapuas	29.8	16.4	8.6	4.5	72.4	57.3
04. South Barito	41.5	22.2	13.4	5.5	76.8	62.4
05. North Barito	24.6	12.4	6.8	3.7	64.2	62.8
71. Palangka Raya	18.9	19.5	8.4	5.3	68.3	93.6
63. South Kalimantan	57.2	26.6	13.9	5.1	71.4	64.1
01. Tanah Laut	39.4	33.9	20.7	5.4	71.2	68.0
02. Kota Baru	56.7	29.3	16.5	4.9	79.7	51.5
03. Banjar	58.4	25.2	10.0	4.5	61.4	61.6
04. Barito Kuala	75.5	29.4	14.9	4.8	71.7	56.4
05. Tapin	47.0	35.8	22.7	5.7	73.0	58.2
06. South Hulu Sungai	61.7	29.9	22.6	5.3	73.1	69.0
07. Central Hulu Sungai	59.6	18.1	9.8	6.5	62.7	65.4
08. North Hulu Sungai	71.9	23.2	8.7	5.4	68.7	55.5
09. Tabalong	63.8	28.5	15.2	6.2	71.7	54.6
71. Banjarmasin	49.5	22.9	10.2	4.0	74.1	80.5
72. Banjar Baru	40.1	24.0	12.6	5.2	71.0	92.7
64. East Kalimantan	31.8	23.3	12.2	5.4	54.9	79.2
01. Pasir	24.2	25.2	13.6	6.7	53.0	69.2
02. West Kutai	32.1	28.1	12.6	3.5	57.9	53.1
03. Kutai	43.4	29.8	16.8	5.9	55.7	76.2
04. East Kutai	39.9	13.2	7.8	5.8	59.8	63.0
05. Berau	34.5	23.5	15.5	4.9	62.8	76.1
06. Malinau	39.4	12.9	4.4	3.5	50.2	54.0
07. Bulongan	22.2	17.3	12.9	4.5	56.5	55.8
08. Nunukan	29.9	17.9	11.0	4.9	44.2	51.8
71. Balikpapan	25.9	21.5	9.7	5.3	64.8	91.2
72. Samarinda	31.9	25.4	11.1	5.4	50.0	92.3
73. Tarakan	25.7	15.0	11.9	4.2	40.3	83.8
74. Bontang	24.0	18.6	9.9	4.9	44.6	92.0
71. North Sulawesi	25.2	23.9	16.3	5.1	56.7	85.2
01. Bolaang Mongondow	28.8	22.7	17.6	5.7	65.0	81.4
02. Minahasa	23.9	25.1	16.6	4.7	51.8	90.0
03. Sangihe Talaud	22.5	19.2	12.0	7.3	63.3	69.3
71. Manado	23.7	19.8	14.2	4.6	55.4	89.3
72. Bitung	30.5	39.2	24.2	4.6	55.1	87.0

Province District	Infant mortality rate (per 1,000)	Population with health problems (%)	Morbidity rate (%)	Average duration of illness (days)	Population self-medicating (%)	Birth delivery assisted by medical personnel (%)
72. Central Sulawesi	57.8	29.2	21.2	6.0	69.3	58.1
01. Banggai Kepulauan	73.2	32.3	26.8	4.9	87.1	46.2
02. Banggai	41.3	26.3	20.4	7.0	74.4	64.2
03. Morowali	54.1	25.2	15.7	4.7	75.7	55.6
04. Poso	63.6	36.8	22.7	5.4	51.9	58.4
05. Donggala	62.2	24.9	18.5	7.1	61.2	58.2
06. Toli-Toli ³⁾	63.3	27.5	20.5	5.6	83.4	46.6
07. Buol	59.1	35.9	29.9	5.3	79.8	48.7
71. Palu	40.2	35.5	21.7	5.5	62.5	79.6
73. South Sulawesi	33.0	22.2	13.9	6.2	58.5	57.3
01. Selayar	44.2	25.0	15.1	5.3	60.1	63.2
02. Bulukumba	35.2	18.8	14.1	8.3	62.4	42.9
03. Bantaeng	23.7	27.9	20.9	5.5	61.9	30.7
04. Jeneponto	54.7	21.2	14.7	6.7	64.5	18.3
05. Takalar	40.5	29.4	23.1	6.2	48.3	39.7
06. Gowa	27.0	21.3	13.4	6.3	49.4	56.4
07. Sinjai	29.1	19.3	12.9	7.7	49.0	57.2
08. Maros	30.7	24.2	10.5	6.6	40.0	78.6
09. Pangkajene Kepulauan	39.6	20.8	14.5	5.5	58.2	65.8
10. Barru	39.8	31.7	16.1	6.1	51.0	43.7
11. Bone	40.1	16.9	10.3	7.5	59.7	58.6
12. Soppeng	25.2	17.4	11.3	5.8	61.9	81.6
13. Wajo	39.9	18.5	11.9	7.8	66.6	41.4
14. Sidenreng Rappang	30.1	26.8	16.5	5.5	61.1	76.6
15. Pinrang	32.0	18.8	10.8	7.4	71.7	79.7
16. Enrekang	19.8	20.0	12.7	5.8	64.3	49.5
17. Luwu	22.9	29.5	20.6	5.0	65.7	49.0
18. Tana Toraja	17.2	22.1	8.8	5.8	33.8	47.4
19. Polewali Mamasa	58.4	19.4	11.3	6.4	54.1	43.0
20. Majene	59.9	26.7	17.8	5.8	63.5	38.5
21. Mamuju	39.8	29.8	21.7	5.5	78.4	30.1
22. North Luwu	29.1	20.1	11.3	5.1	58.7	41.5
71. Ujung Pandang	22.3	21.3	12.8	6.5	59.3	92.8
72. Pare Pare	20.0	27.5	18.5	5.6	63.0	83.8
74. South East Sulawesi	45.4	24.0	15.6	6.5	59.0	34.0
01. Buton	43.3	26.6	16.9	7.0	56.2	24.0
02. Muna	51.0	27.6	21.3	7.9	65.6	33.6
03. Kendari	46.1	22.7	14.1	5.4	56.6	38.7
04. Kolaka	48.4	15.3	10.7	5.9	66.1	26.6
71. Kendari	37.4	28.6	15.2	5.3	56.1	70.8
75. Gorontalo	45.4	32.4	20.7	5.6	63.5	44.5
01. Boalemo	44.0	36.0	26.6	5.5	75.5	32.9
02. Gorontalo	44.8	32.5	19.2	5.7	60.0	42.8
71. Gorontalo	49.7	26.9	18.2	5.6	56.8	73.2
81. Maluku	46.9	21.5	17.0	6.1	83.0	51.3
01. West South-East Maluku	66.9	29.4	25.9	5.9	81.7	38.8
02. South-East Maluku	41.7	10.4	9.7	8.1	83.9	65.6
03. Central Maluku	52.1	25.3	19.5	5.9	86.1	43.1
04. Buru	46.6	14.9	12.0	5.8	87.0	38.0
71. Ambon	22.0	15.6	10.9	7.0	72.9	89.3

Province District	Infant mortality rate (per 1,000)	Population with health problems (%)	Morbidity rate (%)	Average duration of illness (days)	Population self-medicating (%)	Birth delivery assisted by medical personnel (%)
82. North Maluku	57.1	23.1	18.2	5.4	78.3	31.5
01. North Maluku	58.1	26.9	22.0	5.0	77.7	20.8
02. Central Halmahera	55.2	17.8	14.2	5.9	76.5	28.8
71. Ternate	38.0	17.3	11.0	7.4	82.7	74.5
91. Papua	50.5	19.3	11.7	4.7	38.7	51.8
01. Merauke	74.0	17.6	11.7	4.5	29.9	57.4
02. Jayawijaya	51.8	36.7	21.6	4.5	28.3	13.6
03. Jayapura	45.7	19.2	10.4	3.7	57.6	26.7
04. Nabire	43.2	14.8	9.5	5.5	19.2	44.4
05. Paniai	43.1	5.7	2.1	4.3	66.7	26.3
06. Puncak Jaya	43.8	14.1	8.2	2.9	53.5	49.1
07. Fak Fak	33.4	24.8	13.6	3.6	47.7	60.5
08. Mimika	35.5	18.8	12.4	5.6	58.8	48.7
09. Sorong	49.2	10.0	6.9	5.1	14.8	92.6
10. Manokwari	44.7	14.4	12.1	9.4	27.1	58.7
11. Yapen Waropen	58.1	12.2	8.4	6.5	77.0	17.2
12. Biak Numfor	53.4	22.2	14.2	4.9	54.0	75.5
71. Jayapura	42.1	8.3	4.8	4.9	67.0	97.7
72. Sorong	34.2	12.0	7.2	5.7	38.7	76.4
Indonesia	43.5	24.5	15.3	5.8	60.6	66.7

Notes:

1. Nangroe Aceh Darussalam, Maluku, North Maluku and Papua use 2003 data.
2. The number before each province or district is the official area code. District refers to both regency (kabupaten) and city (kota). Where two districts have the same name, the one with a code number above 70 is a city.

Source: BPS special tabulation

13 School Attendance by district, 2002

Province District	School Participation Rate (%)				School Drop-out Rate (%)		
	age 7–12	age 13–15	age 16–18	age 19–24	age 7–15	age 16–18	age 19–24
11. Nangroe Aceh Darussalam	98.1	86.4	70.6	17.4	0.9	5.3	9.7
01. Simeulue	98.6	70.9	27.9	1.5	0.8	7.0	32.8
02. Aceh Singkil	99.4	81.1	53.3	4.1	1.8	11.6	14.2
03. South Aceh	96.7	89.9	59.7	4.1	0.5	7.3	12.2
04. South East Aceh	98.5	84.9	78.9	5.0	1.1	0.7	5.8
05. East Aceh	96.7	85.1	58.3	11.6	1.5	7.8	10.7
06. Central Aceh	97.2	88.8	75.0	13.4	1.9	5.2	4.7
07. West Aceh	98.9	85.8	60.6	17.2	0.2	4.1	14.6
08. Aceh Besar	100.0	84.4	75.6	16.4	0.9	11.1	6.7
09. Pidie	98.0	85.4	77.2	19.0	1.0	6.1	5.3
10. Bireuen	97.7	85.2	85.1	15.7	0.9	6.6	15.7
11. North Aceh	98.0	88.1	80.0	9.5	0.2	1.9	5.6
71. Banda Aceh	99.1	98.0	87.6	60.4	0.0	2.2	2.9
72. Sabang	99.3	96.0	68.5	17.2	0.5	2.2	6.9
12. North Sumatera	97.0	87.3	62.5	13.6	2.5	9.7	11.3
01. Nias	95.0	68.6	37.2	3.1	2.4	21.3	19.3
02. Mandailing Natal	98.6	68.9	46.3	4.7	2.6	9.1	20.9
03. South Tapanuli	99.3	93.8	68.5	8.3	1.3	4.4	4.8
04. Central Tapanuli	93.8	79.2	57.8	6.1	6.1	17.8	16.0
05. North Tapanuli	99.6	94.1	81.6	16.9	1.8	8.2	21.7
06. Toba Samosir	99.6	98.2	89.0	16.5	0.2	2.8	7.3
07. Labuhan Batu	95.3	78.4	52.1	5.4	4.8	17.1	18.8
08. Asahan	94.6	78.0	49.2	3.1	5.2	20.0	21.6
09. Simalungun	98.0	92.8	70.1	11.6	1.3	10.1	13.1
10. Dairi	98.8	91.0	65.3	8.2	1.7	4.5	11.8
11. Karo	98.9	90.8	69.7	7.8	2.0	10.0	11.7
12. Deli Serdang	95.7	90.8	62.3	12.3	2.8	10.6	11.9
13. Langkat	95.9	87.4	54.5	8.8	2.1	5.3	6.5
71. Sibolga	96.7	93.3	74.6	8.5	3.1	8.1	13.5
72. Tanjung Balai	96.5	85.8	61.5	9.0	3.0	9.6	13.7
73. Pematang Siantar	98.8	95.0	85.0	25.6	1.4	4.5	4.5
74. Tebing Tinggi	98.9	90.7	72.4	8.8	1.3	2.6	5.5
75. Medan	98.3	92.6	75.2	29.7	1.5	4.7	4.1
76. Binjai	98.1	92.1	78.4	21.8	2.4	3.9	5.6
13. West Sumatera	96.2	85.1	63.6	18.0	3.6	14.8	16.3
01. Kepulauan Mentawai	96.9	77.6	26.8	2.1	1.3	16.4	24.2
02. Pesisir Selatan	97.1	83.9	67.7	11.5	3.7	13.0	17.7
03. Solok	96.5	78.6	51.5	11.1	4.7	23.7	23.3
04. Sawah Lunto/Sijunjung	94.8	77.1	56.2	3.5	8.4	23.6	27.2
05. Tanah Datar	97.6	92.8	67.4	13.2	2.3	12.0	13.8
06. Padang Pariaman	96.4	85.3	63.3	16.9	4.2	15.4	15.1
07. Agam	96.5	90.9	69.5	14.3	2.8	13.5	15.5
08. Limapuluh Koto	98.2	81.9	56.4	6.6	3.7	13.2	17.6
09. Pasaman	95.0	80.6	50.0	6.8	4.5	23.3	20.6
71. Padang	98.0	93.0	82.6	39.7	1.7	6.4	8.8
72. Solok	97.0	95.4	77.9	23.5	1.2	12.7	13.3
73. Sawah Lunto	98.5	90.3	75.2	12.5	3.2	9.5	15.1
74. Padang Panjang	98.0	93.9	79.5	26.1	1.9	6.0	10.7
75. Bukit Tinggi	98.9	93.1	79.1	24.4	1.2	7.7	13.1
76. Payakumbuh	98.7	95.7	79.3	16.2	1.1	9.1	16.1

Province District	School Participation Rate (%)				School Drop-out Rate (%)		
	age 7–12	age 13–15	age 16–18	age 19–24	age 7–15	age 16–18	age 19–24
14. Riau	96.8	84.5	53.9	8.8	1.9	7.4	6.9
01. Kuantan Sengingi	98.2	87.0	60.2	8.9	2.4	11.3	13.1
02. Indragiri Hulu	95.8	78.9	51.9	7.7	4.0	14.8	13.4
03. Indragiri Hilir	98.0	79.2	37.6	1.2	1.3	6.3	4.6
04. Pelalawan	93.6	82.0	41.5	9.2	3.3	17.9	14.9
05. Siak	96.1	94.4	57.1	6.0	0.9	4.6	2.6
06. Kampar	97.6	85.4	49.8	6.3	1.0	7.6	6.9
07. Rokan Hulu	97.2	80.1	46.1	7.8	2.7	13.9	19.3
08. Bengkalis	97.7	88.1	60.9	9.3	1.6	5.1	7.6
09. Rokan Hilir	96.8	86.7	51.2	3.5	1.2	3.7	6.3
10. Kepulauan Riau	95.9	83.6	52.9	6.6	2.4	15.9	16.1
11. Karimun	93.6	85.2	51.2	2.6	3.5	8.7	15.2
12. Natuna	97.1	80.9	48.4	6.1	1.1	8.1	11.6
71. Pekanbaru	97.5	92.2	82.9	34.3	2.2	3.0	2.7
72. Batam	98.6	92.4	63.9	3.3	0.7	0.0	1.5
73. Dumai	98.1	92.4	62.8	17.0	0.9	4.2	4.4
15. Jambi	96.8	80.8	47.7	9.0	2.7	9.8	12.1
01. Kerinci	97.2	83.7	53.6	8.1	2.7	10.5	17.6
02. Merangin	95.8	72.5	37.4	5.3	2.4	10.7	14.4
03. Sarolangun	97.2	71.2	25.8	1.8	3.3	19.5	16.2
04. Batanghari	96.8	80.5	53.3	6.6	2.8	10.3	12.4
05. Muara Jambi	93.4	76.8	41.4	12.6	3.9	5.2	8.2
06. East Tanjung Jabung	97.0	84.1	39.4	3.0	1.6	14.7	16.9
07. West Tanjung Jabung	94.9	78.3	40.6	2.8	3.8	6.0	9.2
08. Tebo	97.0	80.9	35.1	3.7	3.3	14.4	15.3
09. Bungo	97.1	79.6	34.0	6.0	3.4	16.1	21.0
71. Jambi	99.4	95.1	78.0	22.1	1.2	2.9	2.8
16. South Sumatera	95.5	73.5	46.4	12.1	4.4	11.8	13.1
01. Ogan Komering Ulu	94.6	71.2	41.4	4.8	4.7	11.1	13.3
02. Ogan Komering Hilir	96.5	62.9	34.6	10.6	5.1	17.3	18.8
03. Muara Enim (Liot)	95.7	72.5	46.5	7.7	4.2	14.6	16.8
04. Lahat	98.0	81.5	47.5	5.9	2.1	13.6	13.8
05. Musi Rawas	94.7	70.3	35.3	5.7	4.9	11.8	12.7
06. Musi Banyuasin	95.6	70.1	30.8	3.9	5.8	14.5	17.2
71. Palembang	97.6	88.3	72.9	29.5	2.9	5.0	5.4
17. Bengkulu	96.0	79.4	48.4	13.2	3.5	12.4	15.3
01. South Bengkulu	98.3	86.6	56.4	10.0	2.0	15.8	16.9
02. Rejang Lebong	95.5	78.1	35.9	3.0	4.5	16.0	18.3
03. North Bengkulu	95.1	79.7	35.6	3.2	4.2	15.8	18.7
71. Bengkulu	98.0	89.4	76.5	38.7	2.9	7.2	6.6
18. Lampung	96.1	82.0	45.0	7.0	2.4	11.2	13.1
01. West Lampung	95.3	73.1	45.3	2.7	3.1	13.4	13.7
02. Tanggamus	94.9	83.7	51.7	6.2	2.0	9.5	13.1
03. South Lampung	95.3	80.1	42.2	6.8	2.5	14.7	13.9
04. East Lampung	97.7	83.6	40.5	4.6	2.3	15.0	16.9
05. Central Lampung	98.4	83.5	46.6	3.8	1.1	6.1	10.0
06. North Lampung	96.3	90.9	49.1	6.2	2.2	10.4	14.1
07. Way Kanan	96.1	76.9	36.5	4.9	3.0	11.4	17.1
08. Tulang Bawang	95.1	72.1	32.3	1.7	4.0	15.0	19.0
71. Bandar Lampung	97.8	87.8	66.6	19.7	3.1	7.4	5.6
72. Metro	98.3	94.7	76.8	22.0	1.1	3.3	8.9

Province District	School Participation Rate (%)				School Drop-out Rate (%)		
	age 7–12	age 13–15	age 16–18	age 19–24	age 7–15	age 16–18	age 19–24
19. Bangka Belitung	96.4	70.3	43.8	6.9	5.3	21.8	23.6
01. Bangka	95.8	67.6	42.6	5.9	5.6	27.1	28.5
02. Belitung	98.0	74.9	48.4	4.3	5.4	17.0	17.4
71. Pangkal Pinang	97.2	89.5	76.7	15.4	3.0	9.8	12.6
31. DKI Jakarta	97.6	93.6	70.7	19.5	1.6	4.1	4.5
71. South Jakarta	98.2	92.8	70.3	23.0	1.3	4.8	5.1
72. East Jakarta	97.4	95.4	75.6	19.5	1.9	2.9	3.2
73. Central Jakarta	97.8	91.9	69.6	22.1	1.9	5.3	6.8
74. West Jakarta	97.0	91.9	66.8	16.8	1.3	4.3	4.6
75. North Jakarta	98.0	95.8	71.1	17.6	1.4	3.9	4.2
32. West Java	96.6	75.6	42.8	9.7	2.5	7.4	8.7
01. Bogor	94.6	75.4	44.4	3.5	5.2	16.8	19.0
02. Sukabumi	92.8	64.5	33.6	1.7	3.5	9.7	10.0
03. Cianjur	95.8	52.1	25.8	3.7	3.8	10.2	7.7
04. Bandung	97.0	73.8	45.1	6.4	1.2	4.1	4.2
05. Garut	97.2	72.9	33.7	5.7	3.0	5.8	9.3
06. Tasikmalaya	97.8	68.5	39.7	5.4	1.3	4.3	4.7
07. Ciamis	98.0	79.8	36.5	5.2	1.5	5.3	3.3
08. Kuningan	96.8	72.4	44.2	6.9	0.8	7.3	5.8
09. Cirebon	97.1	77.4	42.8	6.0	3.2	8.3	12.4
10. Majalengka	97.8	73.2	31.8	4.2	1.6	2.5	4.2
11. Sumedang	98.9	76.5	41.2	16.5	0.3	2.3	3.7
12. Indramayu	95.4	72.4	34.8	3.1	3.9	14.5	20.2
13. Subang	97.1	83.4	39.2	2.6	2.4	7.2	14.2
14. Purwakarta	95.7	70.5	37.1	4.1	3.3	12.2	11.0
15. Karawang	95.6	73.0	38.9	2.4	2.1	4.3	12.1
16. Bekasi	99.4	87.0	45.9	6.6	1.1	3.9	9.2
71. Bogor	95.6	89.2	67.3	27.4	3.1	8.3	7.2
72. Sukabumi	97.9	87.1	68.3	9.9	1.9	6.1	5.0
73. Bandung	96.6	94.6	65.7	30.0	2.5	6.5	4.1
74. Cirebon	97.6	88.4	70.6	14.7	1.4	6.8	8.6
75. Bekasi	99.9	96.1	71.2	26.7	0.3	5.7	2.5
76. Depok	96.8	87.7	71.9	19.5	3.4	6.4	5.7
33. Central Java	97.8	81.7	49.5	10.3	1.6	6.0	7.3
01. Cilacap	98.6	88.6	53.6	5.2	1.4	6.3	14.0
02. Banyumas	98.6	85.2	53.4	12.8	1.5	10.3	10.1
03. Purbalingga	97.1	74.9	49.5	1.6	1.7	13.9	12.6
04. Banjarnegara	95.9	70.1	39.7	1.8	2.9	8.6	12.8
05. Kebumen	98.2	88.7	62.6	6.5	1.6	4.6	6.7
06. Purworejo	98.4	90.8	66.6	19.6	2.0	2.9	4.6
07. Wonosobo	95.8	64.7	35.3	3.2	3.6	7.9	6.9
08. Magelang	97.6	83.5	56.2	10.5	1.8	5.6	9.6
09. Boyolali	99.3	90.5	57.8	8.9	0.6	0.9	4.5
10. Klaten	98.4	93.3	71.8	21.6	0.9	4.1	3.2
11. Sukoharjo	99.2	93.0	71.2	21.7	1.0	4.7	2.9
12. Wonogiri	98.0	89.9	53.4	8.0	0.4	0.0	3.3
13. Karanganyar	97.6	95.4	63.2	13.5	0.8	0.7	1.6
14. Sragen	97.4	89.7	61.5	8.6	1.1	5.0	5.3
15. Grobogan	98.3	81.4	44.0	6.3	0.5	3.5	2.3
16. Blora	99.0	85.9	56.5	6.7	0.9	2.9	4.2
17. Rembang	98.4	83.4	44.2	4.4	0.3	5.0	5.3
18. Pati	100.0	87.1	52.6	7.9	0.0	2.8	4.2
19. Kudus	98.9	88.1	43.3	6.3	1.2	2.7	6.2

Province District	School Participation Rate (%)				School Drop-out Rate (%)		
	age 7–12	age 13–15	age 16–18	age 19–24	age 7–15	age 16–18	age 19–24
20. Jepara	98.9	75.8	36.6	6.2	2.1	6.4	6.8
21. Demak	97.7	87.3	35.5	8.9	1.0	2.6	4.0
22. Semarang	99.7	85.5	54.3	9.6	1.5	7.5	7.0
23. Temanggung	96.7	77.1	34.1	5.3	1.8	3.5	6.4
24. Kendal	98.9	83.3	46.8	10.2	0.6	6.5	6.7
25. Batang	98.5	76.3	34.7	4.6	1.1	9.8	5.9
26. Pekalongan	95.6	69.4	30.3	5.0	2.6	8.4	6.9
27. Pemalang	97.0	68.0	34.0	3.6	1.9	8.1	9.0
28. Tegal	96.4	73.3	41.1	5.0	3.8	7.8	14.5
29. Brebes	94.6	64.9	31.9	6.2	4.4	17.8	17.3
71. Magelang	100.0	97.8	80.0	24.8	0.0	4.8	7.6
72. Surakarta	99.1	96.0	73.2	27.8	0.3	2.4	6.3
73. Salatiga	99.6	95.2	76.1	39.4	0.3	4.7	4.2
74. Semarang	99.7	90.7	72.3	32.2	0.7	4.0	3.7
75. Pekalongan	99.2	83.1	51.7	7.9	0.9	3.8	4.0
76. Tegal	95.5	78.2	50.9	9.0	3.1	14.6	12.0
34. D. I. Yogyakarta	99.0	94.3	78.6	39.9	1.0	2.3	4.3
01. Kulon Progo	98.5	95.0	84.4	13.4	1.0	2.4	1.6
02. Bantul	99.6	92.2	73.9	21.8	0.5	2.9	8.9
03. Gunung Kidul	98.6	95.1	82.6	13.5	0.9	2.6	5.5
04. Sleman	99.5	94.1	80.6	52.6	1.2	2.4	3.4
71. Yogyakarta	97.6	94.1	87.3	59.2	2.1	0.9	2.1
35. East Java	96.7	79.8	51.1	11.2	2.2	7.3	11.1
01. Pacitan	96.7	88.0	45.9	8.3	1.3	7.2	8.3
02. Ponorogo	97.5	90.7	66.6	12.9	1.2	6.0	8.3
03. Trenggalek	97.9	85.0	42.9	4.3	0.5	3.5	4.5
04. Tulungagung	96.8	89.8	46.2	6.0	2.6	1.5	6.7
05. Blitar	96.8	82.3	51.0	7.9	1.8	5.7	11.4
06. Kediri	97.2	82.9	53.4	7.2	2.2	6.8	11.2
07. Malang	97.8	82.0	47.7	8.9	1.5	10.5	12.3
08. Lumajang	96.5	75.1	37.9	3.9	1.9	7.3	12.5
09. Jember	94.8	68.0	39.6	8.9	3.6	9.1	20.7
10. Banyuwangi	97.3	76.4	40.4	6.4	3.0	8.2	16.2
11. Bondowoso	95.1	62.8	34.7	4.3	4.3	17.0	28.5
12. Situbondo	94.1	63.3	35.8	2.1	3.9	21.7	20.5
13. Probolinggo	93.9	57.6	28.9	2.2	4.6	18.6	20.8
14. Pasuruan	96.8	74.2	46.8	7.7	1.7	9.1	15.3
15. Sidoarjo	99.0	96.8	81.9	16.6	0.4	2.5	3.6
16. Mojokerto	99.2	86.2	51.2	5.0	1.7	5.6	14.1
17. Jombang	97.7	88.8	55.6	8.7	2.2	6.6	9.5
18. Nganjuk	98.1	91.5	55.3	6.8	1.3	2.5	7.7
19. Madiun	98.0	94.9	70.1	11.8	0.6	0.9	3.1
20. Magetan	98.5	95.5	70.1	12.3	1.0	0.8	1.4
21. Ngawi	97.5	91.1	55.0	7.6	1.0	2.5	3.7
22. Bojonegoro	98.8	81.4	43.1	3.6	1.0	3.1	7.8
23. Tuban	98.7	72.0	34.5	3.6	1.3	2.6	7.6
24. Lamongan	97.9	94.1	59.6	10.2	1.2	4.5	5.7
25. Gresik	97.9	88.6	61.5	15.3	2.0	3.6	8.9
26. Bangkalan	95.0	61.4	27.8	5.6	4.3	14.3	17.7
27. Sampang	88.2	42.0	14.0	3.3	8.9	25.7	38.2
28. Pamekasan	92.9	58.7	42.4	7.6	2.8	10.4	10.7
29. Sumenep	93.5	64.9	34.8	8.6	4.8	17.6	17.3
71. Kediri	98.2	94.5	74.8	18.6	1.2	3.4	3.5
72. Blitar	100.0	94.6	75.3	12.7	1.0	5.5	5.2
73. Malang	98.0	94.9	72.3	47.1	1.3	3.2	4.1
74. Probolinggo	98.9	85.8	57.8	5.6	1.3	9.8	14.6
75. Pasuruan	96.5	85.8	57.9	15.9	3.4	9.6	12.1
76. Mojokerto	100.0	93.2	75.0	15.1	0.6	6.0	3.9
77. Madiun	98.6	96.4	79.1	16.5	0.3	3.4	7.4
78. Surabaya	96.9	91.1	70.4	25.2	0.8	4.0	5.9

Province District	School Participation Rate (%)				School Drop-out Rate (%)		
	age 7–12	age 13–15	age 16–18	age 19–24	age 7–15	age 16–18	age 19–24
36. Banten	95.4	77.0	47.7	11.4	2.4	7.7	9.2
01. Pandeglang	95.1	54.4	23.6	5.0	4.0	9.4	9.9
02. Lebak	94.8	57.6	22.3	1.1	3.6	13.3	19.0
03. Tangerang	95.3	86.4	56.0	12.7	2.1	8.4	10.0
04. Serang	96.4	76.2	40.1	6.7	2.0	6.7	7.7
71. Tangerang	98.6	90.7	76.3	21.4	1.6	3.6	4.0
72. Cilegon	98.3	95.7	78.7	17.5	0.9	3.0	6.1
51. Bali	96.8	83.3	62.2	12.7	1.6	6.9	6.2
01. Jembrana	98.6	81.6	54.2	8.2	1.3	10.5	6.0
02. Tabanan	98.7	93.5	57.1	7.8	0.6	4.4	4.9
03. Badung	98.2	95.4	78.2	18.5	1.0	3.3	1.1
04. Gianyar	99.6	90.5	75.3	13.9	0.6	2.9	4.3
05. Klungkung	96.0	87.2	56.2	5.4	1.5	0.9	4.1
06. Bangli	96.7	77.3	48.9	9.3	1.9	4.1	7.6
07. Karangasem	90.6	70.8	45.5	5.7	4.1	11.7	13.9
08. Buleleng	96.1	81.2	60.1	5.2	2.4	11.7	12.0
71. Denpasar	99.1	85.8	70.8	24.1	0.3	5.9	3.4
52. West Nusatenggara	94.9	72.0	47.2	5.2	4.5	15.1	19.3
01. West Lombok	92.0	58.8	33.8	3.7	5.7	20.7	23.3
02. Central Lombok	96.2	72.2	34.8	3.8	2.6	11.8	19.9
03. East Lombok	94.9	69.7	47.6	3.2	4.8	14.8	16.1
04. Sumbawa	96.3	78.9	53.5	2.0	4.0	11.6	16.3
05. Dompu	95.8	80.0	53.4	3.5	4.9	26.7	30.1
06. Bima	96.3	79.6	63.6	3.5	4.6	13.0	24.8
71. Mataram	93.8	79.0	61.4	21.1	5.1	12.0	13.8
53. East Nusatenggara	89.7	71.4	38.7	8.1	6.0	24.1	28.6
01. West Sumba	82.1	77.9	36.5	8.7	6.8	38.5	42.6
02. East Sumba	84.5	76.4	38.6	8.9	9.4	35.9	52.5
03. Kupang	87.5	79.2	36.7	4.9	6.0	17.6	24.4
04. Southern Central Timor	91.0	55.9	28.2	3.0	6.3	30.3	28.7
05. Northern Central Timor	89.8	75.7	31.3	3.2	4.3	20.4	18.3
06. Belu	85.7	77.1	39.7	6.2	6.4	26.9	30.2
07. Alor	90.4	80.1	54.7	11.6	3.9	13.4	17.6
08. Lembata	95.9	80.6	31.2	1.8	3.0	9.6	7.5
09. East Flores	93.2	74.7	36.0	3.6	4.9	31.0	33.3
10. Sikka	88.8	69.1	39.4	6.2	11.2	36.8	51.1
11. Ende	94.8	74.7	44.4	10.2	6.2	21.3	24.7
12. Ngada	94.2	70.9	41.3	8.5	5.6	19.6	17.6
13. Manggarai	90.3	58.4	21.3	2.5	6.1	24.4	32.0
71. Kupang	98.1	91.2	77.8	34.4	1.5	3.5	6.2
61. West Kalimantan	91.5	77.2	41.6	8.2	4.4	16.4	21.9
01. Sambas	92.5	75.8	43.3	3.2	6.5	16.2	22.5
02. Bengkayang	91.0	74.5	47.5	7.7	5.1	20.8	33.2
03. Landak	90.5	87.5	48.9	7.4	2.4	21.0	15.6
04. Pontianak	90.2	81.4	41.8	7.8	5.4	14.1	24.9
05. Sanggau	90.1	78.8	37.4	3.4	3.3	15.2	26.9
06. Ketapang	89.6	66.5	31.6	3.4	5.0	11.9	24.0
07. Sintang	90.0	69.2	21.5	3.4	5.7	19.9	26.8
08. Kapuas Hulu	94.0	76.5	36.9	4.2	3.6	15.0	16.4
71. Pontianak	95.6	89.7	67.1	28.6	3.1	11.0	8.6

Province District	School Participation Rate (%)				School Drop-out Rate (%)		
	age 7–12	age 13–15	age 16–18	age 19–24	age 7–15	age 16–18	age 19–24
62. Central Kalimantan	97.1	78.2	41.2	8.3	2.8	13.9	13.9
01. West Kotawaringin	98.3	82.1	44.2	6.8	1.1	8.2	10.2
02. East Kotawaringin	95.9	75.1	37.0	3.1	3.6	23.3	19.4
03. Kapuas	97.8	81.3	37.7	2.9	2.5	9.5	11.3
04. South Barito	97.1	73.3	40.8	6.7	5.3	15.9	18.5
05. North Barito	97.7	86.8	39.6	7.2	1.7	8.8	14.3
71. Palangka Raya	97.6	90.3	72.4	36.4	2.1	7.4	6.9
63. South Kalimantan	95.3	71.5	38.9	9.6	4.6	15.9	16.6
01. Tanah Laut	92.8	69.0	29.3	3.8	5.7	17.7	21.7
02. Kota Baru	94.3	69.2	30.1	1.4	4.8	18.4	17.5
03. Banjar	92.7	76.7	42.3	13.0	5.5	16.9	18.2
04. Barito Kuala	97.4	75.4	32.4	5.1	2.9	13.6	25.0
05. Tapin	94.9	71.0	34.7	4.1	5.2	20.6	17.8
06. South Hulu Sungai	95.6	64.6	31.4	2.5	6.0	19.0	16.4
07. Central Hulu Sungai	98.1	70.2	35.0	6.3	2.6	16.7	17.4
08. North Hulu Sungai	97.0	60.0	31.4	3.5	6.2	17.3	19.2
09. Tabalong	96.1	72.4	38.6	4.3	5.1	16.8	15.9
71. Banjarmasin	95.4	88.4	62.2	16.3	3.0	11.6	11.2
72. Banjar Baru	98.0	84.8	69.3	41.9	2.9	8.0	5.6
64. East Kalimantan	97.3	85.9	58.0	12.9	2.2	10.7	11.4
01. Pasir	94.3	70.4	47.6	8.7	5.7	19.5	19.9
02. West Kutai	95.4	86.3	42.6	5.1	1.9	7.4	7.3
03. Kutai	97.5	87.1	44.5	12.7	2.1	18.7	16.7
04. East Kutai	96.8	78.0	53.8	4.8	2.7	14.2	7.8
05. Berau	95.7	81.3	44.5	5.3	2.9	10.9	9.6
06. Malinau	96.1	83.2	36.4	2.4	3.1	22.6	29.8
07. Bulongan	98.5	85.4	48.3	4.2	2.2	11.6	11.8
08. Nunukan	96.1	72.7	42.3	3.1	2.4	20.6	17.5
71. Balikpapan	98.6	93.8	81.6	12.3	1.3	3.0	6.1
72. Samarinda	98.2	91.7	66.6	25.7	1.3	7.6	9.9
73. Tarakan	99.2	93.5	64.0	4.5	0.6	3.2	6.6
74. Bontang	99.0	97.4	74.2	9.0	0.5	3.4	8.2
71. North Sulawesi	95.5	81.8	53.0	11.5	5.6	17.8	22.8
01. Bolaang Mongondow	94.9	69.8	31.0	5.6	7.6	28.7	27.1
02. Minahasa	95.1	86.0	59.9	8.6	6.1	13.2	25.0
03. Sangihe Talaud	94.3	82.8	48.8	3.4	5.5	26.9	29.2
71. Manado	97.6	96.1	73.3	26.6	2.1	5.5	12.0
72. Bitung	97.1	84.3	49.6	7.3	5.7	19.0	24.5
72. Central Sulawesi	94.4	69.5	37.0	7.4	4.7	18.9	16.5
01. Banggai Kepulauan	93.8	65.9	27.5	2.5	2.8	12.5	12.7
02. Banggai	96.7	75.0	39.7	3.9	3.3	15.7	15.5
03. Morowali	95.9	65.2	34.4	3.9	4.7	10.4	14.3
04. Poso	95.5	70.9	35.6	5.8	5.4	24.3	23.2
05. Donggala	91.9	63.9	32.6	2.9	6.3	26.8	21.2
06. Toli-Toli	94.9	62.6	32.7	5.9	7.2	24.4	21.0
07. Buol	94.3	79.3	37.9	6.3	5.8	20.2	16.2
71. Palu	98.0	86.7	67.6	26.3	1.4	6.2	6.0

Province District	School Participation Rate (%)				School Drop-out Rate (%)		
	age 7–12	age 13–15	age 16–18	age 19–24	age 7–15	age 16–18	age 19–24
73. South Sulawesi	92.2	68.6	44.4	12.7	5.3	17.3	17.6
01. Selayar	95.2	68.3	35.1	2.1	6.9	20.6	20.1
02. Bulukumba	89.3	63.9	39.1	7.5	7.1	19.6	16.6
03. Bantaeng	82.1	45.4	28.5	2.5	8.2	29.4	29.6
04. Jeneponto	80.4	54.2	27.9	3.6	11.4	32.5	30.6
05. Takalar	90.0	66.0	35.4	3.7	7.8	17.6	24.7
06. Gowa	92.5	68.0	40.3	11.3	5.5	15.1	22.1
07. Sinjai	95.2	69.3	39.4	6.4	4.2	15.0	24.2
08. Maros	92.8	72.8	41.6	7.9	5.0	17.9	22.9
09. Pangkajene Kepulauan	92.2	59.4	37.6	3.5	7.7	24.3	24.4
10. Barru	96.7	72.7	46.4	8.7	3.6	13.5	13.9
11. Bone	96.4	60.7	33.6	2.2	4.5	19.0	14.1
12. Soppeng	96.8	82.8	49.7	7.8	1.3	14.3	13.0
13. Wajo	93.6	54.3	30.6	1.1	5.3	13.0	20.4
14. Sidenreng Rappang	94.4	69.9	37.7	3.6	4.4	15.1	25.0
15. Pinrang	94.2	72.6	37.8	3.7	4.8	14.9	23.0
16. Enrekang	96.4	84.8	55.1	4.7	3.4	14.3	24.0
17. Luwu	91.2	75.1	52.3	5.0	5.8	14.0	16.7
18. Tana Toraja	90.5	81.7	69.1	11.2	4.3	14.4	16.7
19. Polewali Mamasa	90.0	59.1	32.6	5.1	6.9	29.2	25.3
20. Majene	94.0	68.7	43.5	9.7	5.5	16.6	16.7
21. Mamuju	87.5	61.3	29.5	4.3	7.7	24.8	32.6
22. North Luwu	93.3	72.1	36.8	5.3	3.0	17.5	11.0
71. Ujung Pandang	95.6	85.2	71.8	41.7	3.0	11.5	6.8
72. Pare Pare	96.7	81.9	69.4	8.7	4.7	6.4	10.8
74. South East Sulawesi	93.9	76.3	49.1	10.4	4.9	17.7	19.2
01. Buton	91.8	75.6	47.4	5.7	5.0	20.0	20.2
02. Muna	92.2	79.7	55.4	6.5	7.0	23.4	30.8
03. Kendari	96.2	78.3	41.1	8.2	4.2	17.7	21.4
04. Kolaka	93.9	73.6	37.2	3.9	5.6	18.5	16.6
71. Kendari	98.4	90.1	75.8	34.5	1.6	4.7	7.9
75. Gorontalo	83.5	60.3	32.3	7.2	12.7	27.4	32.6
01. Boalemo	87.7	61.9	27.1	5.9	9.6	37.5	34.0
02. Gorontalo	85.3	57.6	25.4	5.0	15.4	27.3	35.4
71. Gorontalo	94.7	78.9	60.5	15.6	6.7	16.7	21.9
81. Maluku	95.5	84.8	54.7	11.6	2.9	12.8	13.6
01. West South-East Maluku	96.5	87.0	50.4	1.8	4.1	21.1	29.6
02. South-East Maluku	97.1	82.2	47.2	4.4	2.5	14.0	14.4
03. Central Maluku	96.2	85.8	52.2	8.0	2.8	11.0	12.8
04. Buru	89.1	74.0	40.8	7.7	3.3	15.8	7.4
71. Ambon	98.4	94.0	79.1	30.6	1.6	3.1	5.4
82. North Maluku	97.7	90.2	61.8	16.1	2.3	15.2	15.8
01. North Maluku	97.2	87.7	43.4	1.0	2.4	22.1	25.2
02. Central Halmahera	97.3	86.4	42.2	7.7	3.6	20.0	23.3
71. Ternate	98.6	95.5	83.4	31.4	1.2	6.5	5.2

Province District	School Participation Rate (%)				School Drop-out Rate (%)		
	age 7–12	age 13–15	age 16–18	age 19–24	age 7–15	age 16–18	age 19–24
91. Papua	86.8	78.6	52.4	9.7	3.4	15.6	24.6
01. Merauke	82.1	71.3	34.5	2.9	5.3	36.0	50.9
02. Jayawijaya	67.3	56.6	24.4	1.2	3.3	37.0	50.0
03. Jayapura	95.1	91.2	66.8	18.8	0.6	6.0	24.2
04. Nabire	97.4	90.0	50.0	4.0	1.0	13.2	19.6
05. Paniai	93.5	61.9	41.4	1.3	6.2	30.0	17.3
06. Puncak Jaya	90.1	78.6	47.5	2.7	2.9	18.4	15.9
07. Fak Fak	93.7	84.6	51.1	8.9	3.9	15.1	17.4
08. Mimika	90.4	85.0	33.7	0.7	2.5	17.2	38.8
09. Sorong	95.3	93.9	57.7	21.9	1.9	10.3	22.7
10. Manokwari	85.5	61.8	51.3	9.7	2.5	6.0	18.2
11. Yapen Waropen	86.9	60.2	29.9	2.7	19.8	45.5	50.0
12. Biak Numfor	89.7	78.3	52.3	4.2	3.3	7.3	12.9
71. Jayapura	93.6	93.5	89.4	26.4	3.7	1.5	3.9
72. Sorong	97.7	89.1	72.2	10.5	3.4	15.6	24.6
Indonesia	96.1	79.3	49.9	11.7	2.8	9.4	11.1

Notes:

1. Nangroe Aceh Darussalam, Maluku, North Maluku and Papua use 2003 data.
2. The number before each province or district is the official area code. District refers to both regency (kabupaten) and city (kota). Where two districts have the same name, the one with a code number above 70 is a city.

Source: BPS special tabulation

14 Housing Conditions by district 1999 and 2002

Province District	Households with access to safe water (%)		Households with dirt floor (%)		Households without access to sanitation (%)	
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002
11. Nangroe Aceh Darussalam	38.5	51.5	11.1	11.0	30.4	33.8
01. Simeulue		51.8		4.2		81.0
02. Aceh Singkil		29.1		7.9		28.8
03. South Aceh*	26.3	32.4	8.1	8.1	45.1	50.1
04. South East Aceh	35.4	62.3	8.0	7.2	31.0	29.6
05. East Aceh	52.4	39.4	16.6	15.1	10.1	14.2
06. Central Aceh	45.5	52.4	11.4	11.3	8.8	10.9
07. West Aceh*	24.5	32.4	9.3	9.6	58.4	51.1
08. Aceh Besar	38.7	30.5	2.1	7.8	37.2	39.1
09. Pidie	21.2	50.9	13.0	6.4	52.6	49.6
10. Bireuen		45.6		18.3		19.2
11. North Aceh*	39.0	69.9	14.5	11.8	21.3	22.3
71. Banda Aceh	76.5	90.7	0.5	1.6	5.4	14.9
72. Sabang	64.1	67.7	2.0	2.1	31.4	37.2
12. North Sumatera	52.1	58.2	4.0	5.6	16.8	16.8
01. Nias	51.7	58.0	9.2	8.1	37.1	30.3
02. Mandailing Natal		28.1		4.2		59.2
03. South Tapanuli*	33.9	28.5	0.7	1.2	29.6	23.3
04. Central Tapanuli	38.4	40.1	0.7	4.6	59.6	49.1
05. North Tapanuli*	36.3	47.7	1.3	3.9	43.9	47.2
06. Toba Samosir		30.1		4.8		50.1
07. Labuhan Batu	36.1	52.0	9.1	10.3	8.0	10.2
08. Asahan	57.7	61.3	5.2	7.8	6.0	6.5
09. Simalungun	61.8	50.3	8.0	11.2	33.8	34.9
10. Dairi	49.1	40.8	3.2	5.1	49.4	40.3
11. Karo	54.1	61.3	2.3	1.5	21.4	22.6
12. Deli Serdang	44.4	56.0	3.9	5.2	8.3	6.8
13. Langkat	54.7	68.1	9.7	8.8	4.6	11.8
71. Sibolga	89.3	92.4	0.7	1.0	11.5	7.2
72. Tanjung Balai	79.1	84.1	0.2	0.6	3.4	6.6
73. Pematang Siantar	92.0	94.6	0.6	2.5	2.8	1.2
74. Tebing Tinggi	30.8	49.4	1.8	1.0	3.0	3.4
75. Medan	71.8	79.7	0.2	1.8	2.0	1.8
76. Binjai	36.7	54.9	2.3	3.4	2.6	3.4
13. West Sumatera	53.6	57.6	1.9	3.2	32.7	32.5
01. Kepulauan Mentawai		11.8		1.5		76.5
02. South Pesisir	46.1	58.0	4.6	5.9	63.4	58.2
03. Solok	65.4	62.0	0.8	2.2	56.1	50.9
04. Sawah Lunto/Sijunjung	49.1	39.0	6.9	7.4	37.8	44.5
05. Tanah Datar	55.6	59.9	0.2	3.1	24.0	29.2
06. Padang Pariaman*	38.3	42.0	1.2	2.0	37.3	38.9
07. Agam	55.9	47.0	0.4	1.6	16.9	15.5
08. Limapuluh Koto	52.7	61.6	2.1	2.4	4.4	12.8
09. Pasaman	59.8	60.5	3.0	4.2	53.2	40.3
71. Padang	45.0	65.9	0.7	1.5	18.9	9.0
72. Solok	88.6	94.3	1.6	1.1	17.2	12.7
73. Sawah Lunto	70.8	72.8	1.2	2.4	22.9	19.0
74. Padang Panjang	83.9	83.4	0.8	2.2	3.8	4.0
75. Bukit Tinggi	78.3	81.7	0.0	0.8	0.2	1.3
76. Payakumbuh	64.4	78.1	1.0	1.0	1.4	5.6

Province District	Households with access to safe water (%)		Households with dirt floor (%)		Households without access to sanitation (%)	
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002
14. Riau	28.2	41.1	2.6	4.9	11.4	12.5
01. Kuantan Sengingi		38.9		7.3		28.1
02. Indragiri Hulu*	52.3	38.3	2.7	8.0	28.5	29.7
03. Indragiri Hilir	2.5	4.3	0.0	2.6	3.6	13.0
04. Pelalawan		47.7		11.0		7.7
05. Siak		59.3		3.3		0.7
06. Kampar*	32.3	49.9	6.8	7.2	26.5	18.2
07. Rokan Hulu		27.8		13.5		34.7
08. Bengkalis*	17.8	29.2	3.5	3.0	5.1	2.0
09. Rokan Hilir		38.8		4.4		0.2
10. Kepulauan Riau*	40.8	39.4	1.0	3.0	12.8	15.9
11. Karimun		43.6		1.5		12.7
12. Natuna		40.4		18.4		10.5
71. Pekan Baru	24.0	43.8	0.2	2.3	1.3	0.2
72. Batam	55.5	73.4	0.6	1.0	0.2	0.2
73. Dumai		32.6		8.2		2.9
15. Jambi	42.7	52.6	6.2	8.2	20.3	21.3
01. Kerinci	63.0	61.3	2.9	2.6	35.8	37.1
02. Merangin		49.0		13.4		21.5
03. Sarolangun*	34.9	42.1	13.1	12.4	31.1	32.5
04. Batanghari*	45.7	73.0	8.9	9.3	8.6	12.5
05. Muara Jambi		65.6		12.5		12.2
06. East Tanjung Jabung		1.1		7.2		8.7
Tanjung Jabung	5.6		2.3		14.6	
07. West Tanjung Jabung		26.8		4.4		6.6
08. Tebo		51.3		11.9		26.3
Bungo Tebo	39.2		5.5		30.9	
09. Bungo		58.0		13.7		35.9
71. Jambi	71.7	70.8	2.8	2.3	3.7	2.0
16. South Sumatera*	40.3	47.3	11.1	14.6	22.3	25.1
01. Ogan Komering Ulu	45.9	44.8	19.0	23.3	22.0	25.8
02. Ogan Komering Hilir	34.4	37.7	16.7	22.0	18.9	24.5
03. Muara Enim (Liot)	39.2	38.6	4.4	6.3	39.5	29.4
04. Lahat	16.5	41.1	3.4	3.3	44.4	47.3
05. Musi Rawas	30.3	44.1	18.3	20.8	21.6	33.7
06. Musi Banyuasin	20.5	41.0	22.6	16.8	9.6	13.2
71. Palembang	77.2	72.2	1.7	2.7	3.7	2.7
17. Bengkulu	40.8	55.0	12.1	13.9	31.1	31.8
01. South Bengkulu	19.3	43.9	7.6	13.7	46.7	44.9
02. Rejang Lebong	43.9	60.1	2.1	2.4	38.9	37.8
03. North Bengkulu	52.3	55.7	29.3	24.1	35.7	31.4
71. Bengkulu	38.6	60.2	1.6	2.8	3.2	2.2
18. Lampung	45.6	54.1	34.4	29.5	12.0	12.7
01. West Lampung	32.0	27.9	26.9	27.9	35.4	31.2
02. Tanggamus		52.8		31.9		27.9
03. South Lampung*	41.3	53.5	35.1	30.3	24.4	27.7
04. East Lampung		65.8		29.9		2.3
05. Central Lampung*	51.1	59.3	33.4	26.8	2.8	2.8
06. North Lampung*	47.3	49.3	48.1	28.3	6.0	8.4
07. Way Kanan		30.9		49.1		12.1
08. Tulang Bawang		49.9		49.1		1.9
71. Bandar Lampung	43.4	66.1	3.7	5.7	9.7	6.9
72. Metro		51.3		4.7		0.6

Province District	Households with access to safe water (%)		Households with dirt floor (%)		Households without access to sanitation (%)	
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002
19. Bangka Belitung		51.1		2.1		38.5
01. Bangka	38.5	49.6	2.4	2.8	43.9	42.7
02. Belitung	32.0	46.3	0.2	1.2	42.8	47.0
71. Pangkal Pinang	42.5	65.3	0.3	0.7	8.4	6.8
31. DKI Jakarta	59.8	69.7	0.3	1.5	0.8	1.1
71. South Jakarta	27.3	41.8	0.6	0.9	0.1	0.4
72. East Jakarta	43.5	55.4	0.0	0.9	0.2	0.1
73. Central Jakarta	83.6	85.3	0.3	1.1	0.0	0.5
74. West Jakarta	73.4	82.9	0.2	1.8	1.1	0.8
75. North Jakarta	94.3	97.7	0.7	1.3	2.6	4.4
32. West Java*	37.9	47.0	7.1	7.3	20.8	17.3
01. Bogor*	41.0	44.1	2.0	5.7	10.8	15.8
02. Sukabumi	43.4	49.9	2.7	5.2	30.5	24.2
03. Cianjur	37.8	42.1	0.3	1.8	25.7	13.8
04. Bandung	29.2	38.8	0.6	2.1	6.3	8.1
05. Garut	35.1	40.8	0.5	3.3	12.2	15.1
06. Tasik malaya	20.0	36.4	1.1	1.1	15.0	9.8
07. Ciamis	39.3	44.9	6.6	9.4	8.4	19.5
08. Kuningan	34.7	40.0	3.0	6.5	15.0	19.2
09. Cirebon	43.1	43.0	12.5	10.2	36.7	35.4
10. Majalengka	46.5	51.2	6.0	2.3	25.1	16.0
11. Sumedang	40.9	57.4	0.0	1.7	15.9	16.1
12. Indramayu	40.3	42.5	24.2	22.0	39.4	34.8
13. Subang	29.3	41.7	13.5	14.4	31.3	28.9
14. Purwakarta	46.9	60.3	2.9	3.5	17.5	12.9
15. Karawang	29.9	34.6	30.0	31.1	39.6	38.3
16. Bekasi	48.8	63.1	28.4	20.6	12.0	11.2
71. Bogor	31.1	53.5	0.2	0.9	45.5	12.9
72. Sukabumi	52.8	65.0	0.7	3.4	2.4	3.1
73. Bandung	66.2	67.3	0.5	1.4	0.2	2.1
74. Cirebon	82.2	77.9	3.0	3.5	3.3	2.0
75. Bekasi	25.1	56.1	0.7	2.8	6.7	5.6
76. Depok		53.8		2.3		2.1
33. Central Java	52.2	60.2	37.8	34.3	30.9	31.1
01. Cilacap	41.2	54.0	34.7	30.2	27.6	23.7
02. Banyumas	49.0	59.5	31.1	30.9	32.9	41.2
03. Purbalingga	31.1	69.9	40.2	34.2	59.4	53.9
04. Banjarnegara	36.3	50.3	38.5	38.3	32.8	26.3
05. Kebumen	43.7	45.9	37.6	31.5	28.6	33.7
06. Purworejo	42.2	58.6	38.7	23.7	27.6	23.9
07. Wonosobo	66.2	72.4	34.5	38.7	14.5	18.4
08. Magelang	71.1	64.7	40.9	35.3	23.5	26.7
09. Boyolali	62.9	54.3	49.7	51.6	19.8	24.4
10. Klaten	45.3	50.5	21.1	18.7	36.2	37.2
11. Sukoharjo	35.2	60.0	20.4	19.3	25.4	17.1
12. Wonogiri	58.7	62.0	34.6	27.3	7.1	10.3
13. Karanganyar	41.7	68.6	25.4	22.4	35.0	29.0
14. Sragen	59.1	60.4	61.1	56.1	24.7	23.1
15. Grobogan	65.0	70.0	73.4	70.6	20.4	24.4
16. Blora	75.2	68.8	75.4	66.2	14.3	17.5
17. Rembang	79.1	80.9	53.1	53.9	46.7	55.1
18. Pati	46.4	76.9	56.9	47.5	22.5	15.2
19. Kudus	50.2	49.3	16.3	8.2	27.4	29.9

Province District	Households with access to safe water (%)		Households with dirt floor (%)		Households without access to sanitation (%)	
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002
20. Jepara	55.4	69.0	44.3	37.1	23.3	17.4
21. Demak	47.7	51.8	55.2	49.0	43.4	40.6
22. Semarang	58.4	71.6	38.5	39.1	23.4	21.3
23. Temanggung	49.3	61.8	40.4	32.1	29.3	21.0
24. Kendal	51.4	59.0	60.0	46.5	52.4	48.8
25. Batang	29.3	40.2	50.9	45.7	59.2	49.7
26. Pekalongan	28.7	40.8	26.6	26.4	58.3	57.5
27. Pemalang	41.7	49.6	38.4	39.2	52.9	56.4
28. Tegal	29.1	46.8	20.4	19.3	41.8	46.6
29. Brebes	56.0	48.7	31.1	33.1	59.6	58.2
71. Magelang	81.9	85.4	4.9	5.9	5.6	4.6
72. Surakarta	61.0	65.3	3.9	6.4	2.5	1.0
73. Salatiga	83.2	88.6	7.2	7.9	2.8	3.6
74. Semarang	84.7	79.8	9.8	6.6	3.0	2.4
75. Pekalongan	37.5	47.9	5.7	8.8	19.3	16.7
76. Tegal	78.6	89.3	6.6	4.9	23.4	7.4
34. D. I. Yogyakarta	51.1	61.1	15.8	15.4	16.1	9.9
01. Kulon Progo	60.1	76.3	38.6	31.0	2.6	6.3
02. Bantul	46.3	57.7	11.1	12.3	29.2	16.1
03. Gunung Kidul	57.1	66.0	33.4	35.6	3.1	2.7
04. Sleman	53.6	57.6	6.2	7.1	28.1	14.4
71. Yogyakarta	39.5	56.7	1.7	1.3	0.9	1.6
35. East Java	57.0	63.3	28.3	27.5	31.9	31.5
01. Pacitan	52.2	63.4	44.2	39.0	5.6	4.6
02. Ponorogo	64.7	66.7	39.4	43.8	21.4	25.8
03. Trenggalek	51.1	61.5	41.0	33.9	38.0	28.0
04. Tulungagung	45.3	64.8	22.0	24.4	15.7	14.0
05. Blitar	47.8	60.1	20.5	20.0	22.4	20.8
06. Kediri	47.7	59.9	19.6	19.3	15.9	18.9
07. Malang	61.0	63.6	26.5	20.0	17.2	10.4
08. Lumajang	42.8	65.3	12.5	10.2	52.3	44.1
09. Jember	55.5	53.5	25.6	22.4	56.1	47.8
10. Banyuwangi	39.7	47.2	22.3	24.6	54.3	53.1
11. Bondowoso	53.3	42.0	43.6	42.3	67.3	70.2
12. Situbondo	39.3	41.8	44.6	45.2	63.4	69.2
13. Probolinggo	48.5	57.1	41.3	37.7	75.7	64.2
14. Pasuruan	34.3	47.3	17.4	17.6	61.1	44.7
15. Sidoarjo	73.4	76.0	1.9	3.7	17.2	23.0
16. Mojokerto	59.1	58.2	22.8	23.6	30.5	37.8
17. Jombang	50.6	57.8	21.7	20.5	31.1	34.6
18. Nganjuk	57.2	67.6	34.6	38.3	20.6	23.9
19. Madiun	55.4	58.9	53.1	42.6	19.0	26.2
20. Magetan	73.9	88.1	19.7	19.6	13.9	24.3
21. Ngawi	56.6	68.2	63.7	68.0	29.0	30.8
22. Bojonegoro	61.6	48.5	75.1	71.8	49.9	48.9
23. Tuban	61.5	58.9	66.6	61.6	51.5	55.9
24. Lamongan	55.8	66.6	53.8	48.8	20.4	25.0
25. Gresik	53.3	64.1	18.9	20.5	9.9	4.7
26. Bangkalan	56.7	72.2	28.0	32.5	23.3	14.6
27. Sampang	51.7	70.4	68.6	67.7	51.9	54.4
28. Pamekasan	56.2	62.9	38.6	48.4	38.2	35.2
29. Sumenep	55.4	59.8	8.0	16.6	41.7	46.8
71. Kediri	35.4	57.6	6.2	3.5	7.1	1.6
72. Blitar	29.8	44.8	4.8	4.8	18.7	11.5
73. Malang	57.9	61.8	3.6	2.3	5.7	5.5

Province District	Households with access to safe water (%)		Households with dirt floor (%)		Households without access to sanitation (%)	
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002
74. Probolinggo	59.0	59.3	3.1	5.0	31.5	31.4
75. Pasuruan	73.4	82.3	4.8	6.4	35.4	27.6
76. Mojokerto	44.1	58.4	7.7	4.1	19.1	12.0
77. Madiun	50.7	74.3	2.5	4.8	0.2	4.4
78. Surabaya	95.5	98.2	2.5	2.7	1.0	2.6
36. Banten		44.2		10.0		29.2
01. Pandeglang	47.4	53.9	11.4	15.2	60.6	55.0
02. Lebak	39.4	34.8	9.3	6.7	50.6	56.2
03. Tangerang	22.7	48.5	13.6	11.7	21.2	18.2
04. Serang*	36.1	31.7	11.2	12.4	56.3	45.5
71. Tangerang	32.2	45.2	1.4	1.6	6.7	3.6
72. Cilegon		62.6		15.5		13.0
51. Bali	65.8	72.2	5.6	5.9	24.9	21.9
01. Jembrana	56.1	60.7	10.1	12.3	35.0	35.1
02. Tabanan	74.1	68.5	1.9	4.5	14.7	18.8
03. Badung	37.0	70.7	3.1	1.1	11.2	4.5
04. Gianyar	76.2	84.7	3.8	1.3	17.5	11.4
05. Klungkung	72.9	74.1	3.0	4.9	27.2	30.9
06. Bangli	71.1	61.6	6.7	5.4	41.1	42.3
07. Karangasem	69.6	65.6	15.3	10.6	61.1	58.6
08. Buleleng	76.3	85.9	6.2	8.7	26.3	24.9
71. Denpasar	56.9	66.7	0.6	2.5	4.1	1.7
52. West Nusa Tenggara	37.5	47.7	19.3	18.8	56.9	56.3
01. West Lombok	35.3	44.6	14.6	15.9	62.5	61.3
02. Central Lombok	47.8	49.3	30.1	28.2	64.9	64.6
03. East Lombok	20.5	41.9	28.9	27.7	68.2	63.2
04. Sumbawa	41.1	54.0	10.6	6.7	47.3	44.1
05. Dompu	57.1	54.3	19.6	17.5	51.5	53.8
06. Bima	48.1	50.2	4.3	6.7	46.0	51.9
71. Mataram	38.4	55.4	5.7	4.8	20.7	19.8
53. East Nusa Tenggara	58.1	53.2	48.1	47.1	28.2	27.1
01. West Sumba	51.6	41.3	12.3	18.1	49.8	53.5
02. East Sumba	69.2	76.4	23.7	21.2	31.8	41.2
03. Kupang	52.5	63.1	59.7	47.9	41.4	29.0
04. Southern Central Timor	55.3	38.1	74.6	82.8	2.9	1.1
05. Northern Central Timor	69.6	66.9	74.5	64.8	7.2	7.9
06. Belu	62.1	43.6	63.5	57.0	33.7	37.6
07. Alor	59.2	55.2	63.3	53.4	23.2	26.4
08. Lembata		46.3		66.1		28.2
09. East Flores*	45.3	46.3	57.8	50.2	32.5	37.3
10. Sikka	44.6	46.5	42.6	40.3	40.4	41.4
11. Ende	45.4	53.0	30.1	28.8	33.4	32.5
12. Ngada	85.6	78.1	39.5	44.4	18.3	17.0
13. Manggarai	60.3	40.3	46.6	53.0	35.8	30.6
71. Kupang	75.2	80.2	11.3	12.9	0.3	0.3
61. West Kalimantan	21.6	21.5	1.3	2.5	36.9	34.5
01. Sambas*	29.8	13.5	0.7	1.6	39.0	37.0
02. Bengkayang		56.4		3.7		42.1
03. Landak		19.4		5.1		59.2
04. Pontianak*	12.6	7.7	1.2	2.0	38.9	19.3

Province District	Households with access to safe water (%)		Households with dirt floor (%)		Households without access to sanitation (%)	
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002
05. Sanggau	21.4	22.1	1.8	3.5	50.4	48.1
06. Ketapang	31.0	30.7	0.8	1.5	38.4	37.7
07. Sintang	24.7	24.7	3.9	3.0	42.1	44.9
08. Kapuas Hulu	14.2	19.6	0.0	3.1	51.8	39.9
71. Pontianak	14.6	14.5	0.0	0.8	2.4	1.8
62. Central Kalimantan	31.8	33.3	1.9	3.4	19.0	31.1
01. West Kotawaringin	59.4	43.4	12.3	9.8	18.3	7.0
02. East Kotawaringin	19.5	35.7	0.0	2.8	20.1	29.8
03. Kapuas	28.6	26.9	0.0	2.1	11.4	32.9
04. South Barito	44.5	32.8	0.2	2.7	33.3	39.1
05. North Barito	26.9	23.6	0.0	1.0	45.4	53.0
71. Palangka Raya	28.7	40.2	1.1	2.4	2.6	4.5
63. South Kalimantan	53.3	58.5	2.5	3.0	18.1	22.8
01. Tanah Laut	47.0	49.9	13.3	6.0	17.2	8.7
02. Kota Baru	65.4	74.6	6.9	6.2	18.7	17.6
03. Banjar*	41.1	38.8	0.3	2.8	6.6	19.2
04. Barito Kuala	9.6	27.4	0.2	1.8	22.3	41.7
05. Tapin	51.2	56.9	4.6	6.2	13.5	16.6
06. South Hulu Sungai	35.5	47.5	0.2	1.3	37.3	39.6
07. Central Hulu Sungai	42.3	40.7	0.0	0.5	17.8	27.4
08. North Hulu Sungai	50.4	48.4	0.1	1.3	41.8	25.5
09. Tabalong	56.3	65.6	2.4	2.1	23.5	26.5
71. Banjarmasin	95.2	95.4	0.0	1.8	5.2	8.7
72. Banjar Baru		55.7		1.9		0.9
64. East Kalimantan	64.2	62.7	1.4	2.7	11.4	11.9
01. Pasir	44.3	56.8	3.3	2.9	25.4	19.7
02. West Kutai		26.0		2.1		28.3
03. Kutai*	56.6	50.2	2.7	4.3	9.7	8.1
04. East Kutai		50.2		1.1		23.2
05. Berau	48.0	41.9	0.2	1.9	33.4	17.0
06. Malinau		9.1		2.6		35.7
07. Bulongan*	37.8	30.6	0.0	2.6	26.7	22.1
08. Nunukan		35.0		1.3		31.5
71. Balikpapan	92.0	93.0	0.7	0.8	1.4	2.7
72. Samarinda	81.1	84.3	0.0	2.2	2.9	3.8
73. Tarakan		36.5		1.8		6.0
74. Bontang		86.9		2.6		4.7
71. North Sulawesi	55.5	64.3	9.7	9.3	25.0	18.7
01. Bolaang Mongondow	60.9	56.0	11.5	13.1	42.2	45.6
02. Minahasa	66.1	62.4	7.9	7.3	6.0	7.5
03. Sangihe Talaud	54.2	52.4	12.9	18.4	26.3	29.5
71. Manado	61.6	79.0	3.0	4.8	2.7	1.3
72. Bitung	64.5	78.2	8.6	7.0	9.3	7.2
72. Central Sulawesi	48.3	46.2	13.8	15.8	47.4	45.6
01. Banggai Kepulauan		62.1		34.7		53.7
02. Banggai*	64.0	56.5	31.4	31.1	50.9	39.6
03. Morowali		48.3		17.9		38.4
04. Poso*	54.2	52.9	15.6	13.8	36.5	36.8
05. Donggala	42.3	37.7	9.1	10.3	63.4	57.5
06. Toli-Toli		43.0		2.3		46.4
Buol Toli-toli	45.7		4.6		49.9	
07. Buol		40.3		8.2		51.5
71. Palu	29.9	36.0	2.4	2.4	12.8	18.8

Province District	Households with access to safe water (%)		Households with dirt floor (%)		Households without access to sanitation (%)	
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002
73. South Sulawesi	50.9	54.9	3.5	5.0	36.4	36.4
01. Selayar	26.9	19.2	0.0	1.4	78.9	74.4
02. Bulukumba	51.5	43.2	0.9	2.2	44.7	51.2
03. Bantaeng	57.7	35.9	1.2	2.9	62.7	53.3
04. Jeneponto	33.4	29.6	1.3	3.0	59.5	65.1
05. Takalar	41.2	35.1	5.4	6.1	40.0	44.6
06. Gowa	36.1	58.2	4.5	3.9	36.2	21.4
07. Sinjai	58.5	52.1	1.3	1.6	31.9	33.5
08. Maros	35.3	52.0	1.8	4.5	58.4	53.0
09. Pangkajene Kepulauan	49.9	55.8	0.6	3.9	58.7	53.6
10. Barru	38.2	38.6	0.2	2.3	48.0	42.4
11. Bone	49.7	46.1	0.8	1.8	47.2	51.0
12. Soppeng	43.8	69.6	0.3	0.3	20.1	11.2
13. Wajo	32.8	50.6	1.7	2.5	25.7	28.9
14. Sidenreng Rappang	39.2	50.1	1.5	3.6	27.8	23.4
15. Pinrang	35.4	53.1	0.9	3.2	31.2	27.3
16. Enrekang	48.2	53.3	2.5	5.2	51.0	42.5
17. Luwu*	55.1	58.6	12.8	7.8	37.3	44.3
18. Tana Toraja	77.7	56.5	4.2	5.0	9.6	5.2
19. Polewali Mamasa	48.0	42.8	4.0	6.1	55.7	66.6
20. Majene	42.9	44.1	0.8	5.4	62.1	66.9
21. Mamuju	31.9	42.0	12.9	10.2	56.3	63.2
22. North Luwu		47.7		17.8		27.6
71. Ujung Pandang	81.9	92.0	1.8	3.3	4.2	2.6
72. Pare Pare	49.0	64.6	3.4	3.8	13.6	14.9
74. South East Sulawesi	56.4	58.7	14.2	13.5	35.0	35.4
01. Buton	56.8	53.5	3.1	6.8	46.3	48.9
02. Muna	58.8	56.8	6.6	7.6	42.0	49.8
03. Kendari	52.2	63.4	32.5	25.9	25.2	22.0
04. Kolaka	54.4	50.3	11.9	8.0	37.9	36.2
71. Kendari	68.7	77.7	7.6	6.5	14.5	8.7
75. Gorontalo		37.6		14.3		50.2
01. Boalemo		25.9		21.5		64.9
02. Gorontalo*	35.0	36.2	15.5	14.0	56.0	52.7
71. Gorontalo	53.9	59.3	3.3	5.4	11.8	19.9
81. Maluku*	47.9	56.1	23.4	23.1	43.7	45.6
01. West South-East Maluku		52.6		36.2		39.3
02. South-East Maluku*	37.6	48.4	35.0	14.6	48.6	48.2
03. Central Maluku*	41.8	61.6	25.3	24.1	61.5	47.4
04. Buru		39.8		32.1		68.2
71. Ambon	70.4	75.5	1.7	8.9	9.1	15.6
82. North Maluku		56.8		22.0		31.6
01. North Maluku*	45.3	39.3	24.7	35.5	43.9	45.8
02. Central Halmahera	57.8	56.5	31.9	22.0	27.9	28.9
71. Ternate		77.9		5.8		16.8

Province District	Households with access to safe water (%)		Households with dirt floor (%)		Households without access to sanitation (%)	
	1999	2002	1999	2002	1999	2002
91. Papua	45.5	38.4	12.6	22.1	38.9	51.4
01. Merauke	34.2	21.1	20.7	21.6	46.2	55.0
02. Jayawijaya	55.8	38.4	12.7	28.7	54.5	71.8
03. Jayapura	55.4	39.7	6.8	10.3	40.4	26.3
04. Nabire		7.6		46.7		52.2
05. Paniai*	24.6	42.9	2.2	33.2	38.0	46.2
06. Puncak Jaya		29.1		36.7		49.7
07. Fak Fak*	40.9	46.5	16.8	13.8	40.2	49.7
08. Mimika		30.6		22.7		55.5
09. Sorong	44.8	42.2	20.3	11.6	18.7	45.5
10. Manokwari	44.7	13.3	18.9	10.8	38.9	55.8
11. Yapen Waropen	30.6	10.4	13.7	14.5	56.3	67.4
12. Biak Numfor	50.0	25.2	7.3	15.5	22.7	23.0
71. Jayapura	74.5	90.5	1.9	4.4	14.5	4.0
72. Sorong		79.0		4.0		14.7
Indonesia		55.2		16.7		25.0

Notes:

1. Nangroe Aceh Darussalam, Maluku, North Maluku and Papua use 2003 data.

2. The number before each province or district is the official area code. District refers to both regency (kabupaten) and city (kota). Where two districts have the same name, the one with a code number above 70 is a city.

* This province and district lost part of its area between 1999 and 2002. For a list of boundary changes, see page 95.

Source: BPS special tabulation

Province District	Real per capita GRDP, 2000 (thousand rupiah)		Annual growth in real per capita GRDP			
	With oil and gas	Without oil and gas	With oil and gas		Without oil and gas	
			1999*	2000**	1999*	2000**
11. Nangroe Aceh Darussalam	3,051	1,876	-5.48	-4.45	-2.73	-3.65
01. Simeulue	-	-	-	-	-	-
South Aceh	-	-	0.92	-	0.92	-
02. Aceh Singkil #	1,359	1,359	-	-	-	-
03. South Aceh#	2,094	2,094	-	-	-	-
04. South East Aceh	1,117	1,117	1.45	2.41	1.45	2.41
05. East Aceh	1,586	1,514	-5.26	-4.03	-5.30	-4.01
06. Central Aceh	1,980	1,980	3.21	3.79	3.21	3.79
07. West Aceh	1,373	1,373	-2.24	0.28	-2.24	0.28
08. Aceh Besar	1,511	1,511	0.25	1.23	0.25	1.23
09. Pidie	1,149	1,149	-5.33	-2.49	-5.33	-2.49
North Aceh	-	-	-8.41	-	-5.02	-
10. Bireuen#	1,698	1,698	-	-	-	-
11. North Aceh#	53,079	12,977	-	-	-	-
71. Banda Aceh	2,130	2,130	0.16	0.00	0.16	0.00
72. Sabang	2,434	2,434	1.82	2.50	1.82	2.50
12. North Sumatera	2,357	2,342	6.44	14.75	6.57	14.80
01. Nias	1,236	1,236	5.09	4.92	5.09	4.92
South Tapanuli	-	-	3.68	-	3.68	-
02. Mandailing Natal#	1,453	1,453	-	-	-	-
03. South Tapanuli#	1,923	1,923	-	-	-	-
04. Central Tapanuli	1,751	1,751	8.97	9.00	8.97	9.00
North Tapanuli	-	-	2.55	-	2.55	-
05. North Tapanuli #	-	-	-	-	-	-
06. Toba Samosir#	-	-	-	-	-	-
07. Labuhan Batu	2,948	2,948	13.92	15.55	13.92	15.55
08. Asahan	3,332	3,332	8.12	9.41	8.12	9.41
09. Simalungun	2,378	2,378	8.24	7.31	8.24	7.31
10. Dairi	1,580	1,580	6.84	7.42	6.84	7.42
11. Karo	2,864	2,864	7.28	6.92	7.28	6.92
12. Deli Serdang	1,572	1,572	2.13	4.67	2.13	4.67
13. Langkat	2,134	1,955	-0.44	1.54	0.92	2.08
71. Sibolga	2,886	2,886	4.96	5.03	4.96	5.03
72. Tanjung Balai	2,797	2,797	-8.10	-7.06	-8.10	-7.06
73. Pematang Siantar	2,963	2,963	2.02	3.30	2.02	3.30
74. Tebing Tinggi	2,493	2,493	14.44	14.53	14.44	14.53
75. Medan	2,756	2,756	11.25	12.88	11.25	12.88
76. Binjai	1,536	1,536	9.35	11.81	9.35	11.81
13. West Sumatera	1,714	1,714	8.12	1.49	8.12	1.49
Padang Pariaman	-	-	1.56	-	1.56	-
01. Kepulauan Mentawai#	-	-	-	-	-	-
06. Padang Pariaman#	-	-	-	-	-	-
02. South Pesisir	1,145	1,145	9.60	10.76	9.60	10.76
03. Solok	1,358	1,358	14.09	15.11	14.09	15.11
04. Sawah Lunto/Sijunjung	1,775	1,775	10.15	12.69	10.15	12.69
05. Tanah Datar	1,592	1,592	10.87	12.92	10.87	12.92
07. Agam	1,631	1,631	3.64	5.99	3.64	5.99
08. Limapuluh Koto	1,858	1,858	2.93	5.29	2.93	5.29
09. Pasaman	1,059	1,059	6.83	8.45	6.83	8.45
71. Padang	3,460	3,460	12.41	15.60	12.41	15.60
72. Solok	2,298	2,298	15.10	17.33	15.10	17.33
73. Sawah Lunto	3,821	3,821	4.71	4.24	4.71	4.24
74. Padang Panjang	2,252	2,252	6.21	8.29	6.21	8.29
75. Bukit Tinggi	2,287	2,287	5.57	8.06	5.57	8.06
76. Payakumbuh	1,855	1,855	4.81	7.02	4.81	7.02

Province District	Real per capita GRDP, 2000 (thousand rupiah)		Annual growth in real per capita GRDP			
	With oil and gas	Without oil and gas	With oil and gas		Without oil and gas	
			1999*	2000**	1999*	2000**
14. Riau	2,050	2,668	-5.49	-57.90	-4.90	23.28
Indragiri Hulu	-	-	5.92	-	5.93	-
01. Kuantan Sengingi #	1,401	1,401	-	-	-	-
02. Indragiri Hulu#	-	-	-	-	-	-
03. Indragiri Hilir	1,496	1,496	-6.63	-8.13	-6.63	-8.13
Kampar	-	-	-7.84	-	-7.50	-
04. Pelalawan#	1,720	1,720	-	-	-	-
06. Kampar#	-	1,052	-	-	-	-
07. Rokan Hulu#	917	917	-	-	-	-
Bengkalis	-	-	-8.04	-	-7.09	-
05. Siak#	1,900	1,900	-	-	-	-
08. Bengkalis#	-	-	-	-	-	-
09. Rokan Hilir#	1,473	1,473	-	-	-	-
73. Dumai#	1,806	1,806	-	-	-	-
Kepulauan Riau	-	-	-7.57	-	-6.97	-
10. Kepulauan Riau#	-	-	-	-	-	-
11. Karimun#	2,180	2,180	-	-	-	-
12. Natuna#	1,374	1,374	-	-	-	-
71. Pekanbaru	2,259	2,259	1.44	20.17	1.44	20.17
72. Batam	6,451	6,451	-21.31	-20.32	-21.31	-20.32
15. Jambi	1,270	1,169	1.45	-0.77	1.09	-1.53
01. Kerinci	1,246	1,246	1.84	1.51	1.84	1.51
Sarolangun Bangko	-	-	1.64	-	1.59	-
02. Merangin#	955	-	-	-	-	-
03. Sarolangun#	1,174	1,109	-	-	-	-
Batanghari	-	-	-	-	-	-
04. Batanghari#	1,322	1,180	-	-	-	-
05. Muara Jambi#	1,079	964	-	-	-	-
Tanjung jabung	-	-	2.36	-	1.06	-
06. East Tanjung Jabung #	2,034	1,296	-	-	-	-
07. West Tanjung Jabung#	2,138	2,138	-	-	-	-
Bungo Tebo	-	-	0.93	-	0.93	-
08. Tebo#	783	783	-	-	-	-
09. Bungo#	1,164	1,164	-	-	-	-
71. Jambi	1,690	1,594	0.47	-0.77	0.20	-0.68
16. South Sumatera	1,769	1,407	1.85	1.88	0.77	-2.65
01. Ogan Komering Ulu	1,115	1,021	-1.77	2.13	-2.52	0.77
02. Ogan Komering Hilir	1,127	1,127	-1.91	-1.62	-1.91	-1.62
03. Muara Enim (Liot)	3,216	1,903	3.75	4.97	2.35	0.77
04. Lahat	1,253	1,253	0.98	1.71	0.98	1.71
05. Musi Rawas	1,365	1,066	1.87	2.36	1.88	2.60
06. Musi Banyuasin	2,010	1,293	1.79	3.90	-0.44	0.95
07. Bangka	-	-	0.79	-	0.79	-
08. Belitung	-	-	-0.98	-	-0.98	-
71. Palembang	2,217	1,980	5.51	6.16	3.92	6.10
72. Pangkal Pinang	-	-	2.53	-	2.53	-
17. Bengkulu	1,188	1,188	-5.74	-4.85	-5.74	-4.85
01. South Bengkulu	973	973	-15.25	-13.06	-15.25	-13.06
02. Rejang Lebong	1,282	1,282	-9.93	-9.75	-9.93	-9.75
03. North Bengkulu	974	974	-0.19	1.19	-0.19	1.19
71. Bengkulu	1,684	1,684	1.46	3.07	1.46	3.07

Province District	Real per capita GRDP, 2000 (thousand rupiah)		Annual growth in real per capita GRDP			
	With oil and gas	Without oil and gas	With oil and gas		Without oil and gas	
			1999*	2000**	1999*	2000**
18. Lampung	1,085	1,074	4.17	7.94	3.21	7.88
01. West Lampung	735	735	7.56	7.26	7.56	7.26
02. Tanggamus	800	800	5.99	6.01	5.99	6.01
03. North Lampung	865	865	-4.06	-3.12	-4.06	-3.12
Central Lampung	-	-	3.64	-	0.56	-
04. East Lampung#	984	903	-	-	-	-
05. Central Lampung#	1,226	1,226	-	-	-	-
72. Metro#	923	923	-	-	-	-
North Lampung	-	-	3.01	-	3.01	-
06. North Lampung#	935	935	-	-	-	-
07. Way Kanan#	644	644	-	-	-	-
08. Tulang Bawang	959	959	-2.49	-2.02	-2.49	-2.02
71. Bandar Lampung	2,278	2,278	18.80	18.26	18.80	18.26
19. Bangka Belitung	2,083	2,083	-	-	-	-
01. Bangka	2,193	2,193	-	-	-	-
02. Belitung	2,097	2,097	-	-	-	-
71. Pangkal Pinang	1,560	1,560	-	-	-	-
31. DKI Jakarta	7,705	7,705	24.88	27.81	24.88	27.81
71. South Jakarta	6,072	6,072	18.25	20.71	18.25	20.71
72. East Jakarta	6,541	6,541	44.62	51.18	44.62	51.18
73. Central Jakarta	16,850	16,850	1.27	5.64	1.27	5.64
74. West Jakarta	5,032	5,032	22.86	28.32	22.86	28.32
75. North Jakarta	9,135	9,135	17.25	20.43	17.25	20.43
32. West Java	1,680	1,626	0.59		0.16	
Bogor	-	-	0.84	-	0.84	-
01. Bogor#	1,234	1,234	-	-	-	-
76. Depok#	1,133	1,133	-	-	-	-
02. Sukabumi	1,092	1,092	0.90	11.67	0.90	11.67
03. Cianjur	1,054	1,054	1.50	2.58	1.50	2.58
04. Bandung	1,657	1,657	0.23	2.41	0.23	2.41
05. Garut	1,064	1,064	2.12	3.49	2.12	3.49
06. Tasik Malaya	1,048	1,048	8.75	2.90	8.75	2.90
07. Ciamis	1,275	1,275	-	-	-	-
08. Kuningan	929	929	-23.86	35.32	-23.86	35.32
09. Cirebon	826	826	2.88	3.90	2.88	3.90
10. Majalengka	1,008	1,008	2.87	3.71	2.87	3.71
11. Sumedang	1,089	1,089	1.59	3.44	1.59	3.44
12. Indramayu	2,829	1,633	-10.96	0.06	1.72	3.71
13. Subang	1,410	1,410	-0.20	3.20	-0.20	3.20
14. Purwakarta	2,796	2,796	113.15	1.59	113.15	1.59
15. Karawang	1,583	1,583	7.09	9.80	7.09	9.80
16. Bekasi	5,270	5,270	-2.56	0.52	-2.56	0.52
71. Bogor	1,541	1,541	17.62	2.84	17.62	2.84
72. Sukabumi	1,899	1,899	2.63	4.24	2.63	4.24
73. Bandung	2,679	2,679	0.60	3.16	0.60	3.16
74. Cirebon	5,030	5,030	1.85	3.12	1.85	3.12
75. Bekasi	2,049	2,049	-2.72	-0.48	-2.72	-0.48
33. Central Java	1,340	1,201	1.12	2.92	0.88	2.52
01. Cilacap	4,082	1,381	2.81	5.98	1.29	4.33
02. Banyumas	720	720	-0.21	3.25	-0.21	3.25
03. Purbalingga	789	789	0.37	2.03	0.37	2.03

Province District	Real per capita GRDP, 2000 (thousand rupiah)		Annual growth in real per capita GRDP			
	With oil and gas	Without oil and gas	With oil and gas		Without oil and gas	
			1999*	2000**	1999*	2000**
04. Banjarnegara	1,003	1,003	-0.68	0.01	-0.68	0.01
05. Kebumen	767	767	3.12	4.04	3.12	4.04
06. Purworejo	959	959	2.14	2.08	2.14	2.08
07. Wonosobo	733	733	2.93	3.06	2.93	3.06
08. Magelang	990	990	0.99	2.85	0.99	2.85
09. Boyolali	1,027	1,027	0.62	1.49	0.62	1.49
10. Klaten	1,069	1,069	0.01	3.49	0.01	3.49
11. Sukoharjo	1,480	1,480	-0.04	2.20	-0.04	2.20
12. Wonogiri	788	788	1.43	3.01	1.43	3.01
13. Karanganyar	1,542	1,542	1.66	3.27	1.66	3.27
14. Sragen	807	807	1.37	2.23	1.37	2.23
15. Grobogan	567	567	-4.30	4.44	-4.30	4.44
16. Blora	863	832	0.21	1.18	0.31	1.69
17. Rembang	882	882	1.61	3.66	1.61	3.66
18. Pati	843	843	0.91	-0.27	0.91	-0.27
19. Kudus	4,318	4,318	-0.64	0.44	-0.64	0.44
20. Jepara	1,054	1,054	-0.77	3.12	-0.77	3.12
21. Demak	772	772	0.52	1.07	0.52	1.07
22. Semarang	1,248	1,248	0.63	3.92	0.63	3.92
23. Temanggung	1,058	1,058	1.40	2.61	1.40	2.61
24. Kendal	1,774	1,774	0.88	1.11	0.88	1.11
25. Batang	1,134	1,134	1.41	1.10	1.41	1.10
26. Pekalongan	1,159	1,159	2.87	1.58	2.87	1.58
27. Pemalang	861	861	0.13	2.22	0.13	2.22
28. Tegal	678	678	1.53	3.88	1.53	3.88
29. Brebes	785	785	2.72	2.86	2.72	2.86
71. Magelang	2,526	2,526	3.32	3.54	3.32	3.54
72. Surakarta	2,430	2,430	0.66	3.34	0.66	3.34
73. Salatiga	2,375	2,375	0.69	2.46	0.69	2.46
74. Semarang	3,514	3,514	1.58	3.12	1.58	3.12
75. Pekalongan	1,030	1,030	-1.97	-1.93	-1.97	-1.93
76. Tegal	983	983	-2.81	0.05	-2.81	0.05
34. D. I. Yogyakarta	1,581	1,581	-1.45	0.97	-1.45	0.97
01. Kulon Progo	946	946	-10.01	1.44	-10.01	1.44
02. Bantul	1,083	1,083	0.15	1.87	0.15	1.87
03. Gunung Kidul	1,388	1,388	1.43	2.46	1.43	2.46
04. Sleman	1,610	1,610	-4.38	-3.04	-4.38	-3.04
71. Yogyakarta	3,414	3,414	1.44	4.02	1.44	4.02
35. East Java	1,641	1,641	-3.60	2.96	-3.60	2.96
01. Pacitan	674	674	0.93	1.53	0.93	1.53
02. Ponorogo	776	776	0.75	1.62	0.75	1.62
03. Trenggalek	764	764	1.18	2.18	1.18	2.18
04. Tulungagung	1,202	1,202	3.60	2.22	3.60	2.22
05. Blitar	1,040	1,040	1.95	1.65	1.95	1.65
06. Kediri	1,088	1,088	4.72	7.87	4.72	7.87
07. Malang	1,142	1,142	1.31	2.20	1.31	2.20
08. Lumajang	996	996	1.14	2.67	1.14	2.67
09. Jember	1,025	1,025	1.41	2.84	1.41	2.84
10. Banyuwangi	1,179	1,179	1.42	6.26	1.42	6.26
11. Bondowoso	859	859	0.87	1.65	0.87	1.65
12. Situbondo	1,424	1,424	0.60	1.82	0.60	1.82
13. Probolinggo	1,359	1,359	-0.28	2.50	-0.28	2.50
14. Pasuruan	1,067	1,067	4.24	-1.86	4.24	-1.86
15. Sidoarjo	2,483	2,483	-1.23	0.08	-1.23	0.08
16. Mojokerto	1,449	1,449	0.05	1.83	0.05	1.83
17. Jombang	965	965	-0.59	3.52	-0.59	3.52

Province District	Real per capita GRDP, 2000 (thousand rupiah)		Annual growth in real per capita GRDP			
	With oil and gas	Without oil and gas	With oil and gas		Without oil and gas	
			1999*	2000**	1999*	2000**
18. Nganjuk	1,150	1,150	-0.39	2.35	-0.39	2.35
19. Madiun	887	887	1.72	2.29	1.72	2.29
20. Magetan	985	985	1.66	2.20	1.66	2.20
21. Ngawi	839	839	-4.93	7.51	-4.93	7.51
22. Bojonegoro	850	850	-0.74	2.02	-0.74	2.02
23. Tuban	1,125	1,125	1.09	7.25	1.09	7.25
24. Lamongan	924	924	1.52	1.64	1.52	1.64
25. Gresik	3,383	3,383	0.62	1.63	0.62	1.63
26. Bangkalan	994	994	2.34	2.55	2.34	2.55
27. Sampang	707	707	0.42	7.38	0.42	7.38
28. Pamekasan	668	668	-7.50	0.14	-7.50	0.14
29. Sumenep	1,051	1,051	2.70	14.38	2.70	14.38
71. Kediri	3,370	3,370	1.84	5.90	1.84	5.90
72. Blitar	49,092	49,092	0.89	5.17	0.89	5.17
73. Malang	204	204	-1.32	1.54	-1.32	1.54
74. Probolinggo	2,187	2,187	2.39	-0.13	2.39	-0.13
75. Pasuruan	1,601	1,601	0.36	2.30	0.36	2.30
76. Mojokerto	2,095	2,095	-0.06	4.75	-0.06	4.75
77. Madiun	1,689	1,689	0.86	2.43	0.86	2.43
78. Surabaya	4,594	4,594	-16.75	1.09	-16.75	1.09
36. Banten	2,727	2,727	-	-	-	-
01. Pandeglang	1,193	1,193	4.55	-	4.55	-
02. Lebak	1,015	1,015	6.83	-	6.83	-
03. Tangerang	1,380	1,380	-2.78	-	-2.78	-
Serang	-	-	-	-	-	-
04. Serang#	-	-	0.84	-	0.84	-
72. Cilegon#	-	-	-	-	-	-
71. Tangerang	4,077	4,077	2.18	-	2.18	-
51. Bali	2,497	2,497	-0.28	2.34	-0.28	2.34
01. Jembrana	2,199	2,199	-0.09	2.47	-0.09	2.47
02. Tabanan	2,016	2,016	0.05	1.96	0.05	1.96
03. Badung	5,305	5,305	-2.03	2.20	-2.03	2.20
04. Gianyar	2,468	2,468	0.88	3.80	0.88	3.80
05. Klungkung	2,373	2,373	0.40	1.98	0.40	1.98
06. Bangli	1,974	1,974	-0.09	1.87	-0.09	1.87
07. Karangasem	1,491	1,491	0.03	1.77	0.03	1.77
08. Buleleng	1,619	1,619	0.15	2.58	0.15	2.58
71. Denpasar	3,033	3,033	-1.18	0.48	-1.18	0.48
52. West Nusa Tenggara	2,290	2,290	10.26	27.56	10.26	27.56
01. West Lombok	868	868	0.33	0.74	0.33	0.74
02. Central Lombok	4,743	4,743	40.64	-28.02	40.64	-28.02
03. East Lombok	6,461	6,461	1.09	1.01	1.09	1.01
04. Sumbawa	3,769	3,769	8.26	189.56	8.26	189.56
05. Dompu	2,079	2,079	7.47	4.33	7.47	4.33
06. Bima	1,104	1,104	9.14	9.56	9.14	9.56
71. Mataram	3,834	3,834	1.33	2.15	1.33	2.15
53. East Nusa Tenggara	756	756	0.41	2.46	0.41	2.46
01. West Sumba	481	481	-1.76	0.77	-1.76	0.77
02. East Sumba	878	878	-3.50	-0.54	-3.50	-0.54
03. Kupang	1,565	1,565	2.31	2.04	2.31	2.04
04. South Central Timor	551	551	1.50	2.86	1.50	2.86
05. North Central Timor	660	660	4.53	1.75	4.53	1.75

Province District	Real per capita GRDP, 2000 (thousand rupiah)		Annual growth in real per capita GRDP			
	With oil and gas	Without oil and gas	With oil and gas		Without oil and gas	
			1999*	2000**	1999*	2000**
06. Belu	665	665	0.35	1.27	0.35	1.27
07. Alor	714	714	-1.60	3.22	-1.60	3.22
East Flores	-	-	4.16	-	4.16	-
08. Lembata#	445	445	-	-	-	-
09. East Floresr#	781	781	-	-	-	-
10. Sikka	725	725	-0.10	3.44	-0.10	3.44
11. Ende	811	811	0.97	4.07	0.97	4.07
12. Ngada	757	757	2.34	3.92	2.34	3.92
13. Manggarai	533	533	-0.92	1.73	-0.92	1.73
71. Kupang	1,161	1,161	-1.34	2.47	-1.34	2.47
61. West Kalimantan	1,975	1,975	0.49	3.51	0.49	3.51
Sambas	-	-	2.35	-	2.35	-
01. Sambas#	1,420	1,420	-	-	-	-
02. Bengkayang#	1,577	1,577	-	-	-	-
Pontianak	-	-	-0.73	-	-0.73	-
03. Landak#	1,538	1,538	-	-	-	-
04. Pontianak#	2,487	2,487	-	-	-	-
05. Sanggau	1,623	1,623	3.62	4.42	3.62	4.42
06. Ketapang	1,747	1,747	0.58	0.75	0.58	0.75
07. Sintang	1,007	1,007	-0.10	2.44	-0.10	2.44
08. Kapuas Hulu	1,621	1,621	0.41	1.24	0.41	1.24
71. Pontianak	4,082	4,082	-0.16	1.08	-0.16	1.08
62. Central Kalimantan	2,321	2,321	-2.22	1.24	-2.22	1.24
01. West Kotawaringin	3,159	3,159	1.27	2.36	1.27	2.36
02. East Kotawaringin	2,331	2,331	-3.31	-1.41	-3.31	-1.41
03. Kapuas	1,545	1,545	-1.81	0.53	-1.81	0.53
04. South Barito	2,365	2,365	0.97	1.80	0.97	1.80
05. North Barito	3,788	3,788	-5.49	9.26	-5.49	9.26
71. Palangka Raya	2,122	2,122	-4.17	-2.26	-4.17	-2.26
63. South Kalimantan	2,092	2,063	1.64	3.31	1.61	3.64
01. Tanah Laut	1,492	1,492	1.10	3.42	1.10	3.42
02. Kota Baru	3,728	3,728	3.46	4.01	3.46	4.01
Banjar	-	-	1.16	-	1.16	-
03. Banjar#	1,543	1,543	-	-	-	-
72. Banjar Baru#	1,729	1,729	-	-	-	-
04. Barito Kuala	2,427	2,427	-3.47	-0.22	-3.47	-0.22
05. Tapin	1,530	1,530	-0.58	8.55	-0.58	8.55
06. South Hulu Sungai	1,347	1,347	1.63	3.68	1.63	3.68
07. Central Hulu Sungai	947	947	0.12	8.99	0.12	8.99
08. North Hulu Sungai	1,834	1,803	1.86	7.88	1.80	8.37
09. Tabalong	2,516	2,059	12.59	0.05	15.21	4.37
71. Banjarmasin	2,237	2,237	-1.40	1.44	-1.40	1.44
64. East Kalimantan	9,242	4,955	3.82	7.08	4.79	6.88
01. Pasir	3,448	3,448	2.84	3.92	2.84	3.92
Kutai	-	-	7.39	-	8.86	-
02. West Kutai#	4,759	4,759	-	-	-	-
03. Kutai#	15,636	4,443	-	-	-	-
04. East Kutai#	7,748	7,189	-	-	-	-
74. Bontang#	44,986	10,017	-	-	-	-
05. Berau	5,586	5,586	-1.90	4.11	-1.90	4.11
Bulongan	-	-	0.81	-	3.33	-
06. Malinau#	4,587	4,587	-	-	-	-

Province District	Real per capita GRDP, 2000 (thousand rupiah)		Annual growth in real per capita GRDP			
	With oil and gas	Without oil and gas	With oil and gas		Without oil and gas	
			1999*	2000**	1999*	2000**
07. Bulongan#	2,909	2,486	-	-	-	-
08. Nunukan#	2,205	1,739	-	-	-	-
71. Balikpapan	9,150	4,430	-1.09	3.30	3.94	4.94
72. Samarinda	5,541	5,541	2.60	3.07	2.60	3.07
73. Tarakan	6,154	5,912	3.40	3.90	2.92	4.07
71. North Sulawesi	1,695	1,695	-22.94	15.08	-22.94	15.08
01. Bolaang Mongondow	1,136	1,136	4.24	6.66	4.24	6.66
02. Minahasa	1,746	1,746	-0.50	0.01	-0.50	0.01
03. Sangihe Talaud	1,177	1,177	3.47	4.27	3.47	4.27
71. Manado	2,144	2,144	0.74	5.10	0.74	5.10
72. Bitung	2,950	2,950	4.49	5.41	4.49	5.41
72. Central Sulawesi	2,053	2,053	2.78	2.00	2.78	2.00
Banggai	-	-	2.54	-	2.54	-
01. Banggai Kepulauan#	1,082	1,082	-	-	-	-
02. Banggai#	1,189	1,189	-	-	-	-
Poso	-	-	2.97	-	2.97	-
03. Morowali#	2,212	2,212	-	-	-	-
04. Poso#	1,138	1,138	-	-	-	-
05. Donggala	7,226	7,226	3.26	4.68	3.26	4.68
Buol Toli-toli	-	-	3.23	-	3.23	-
06. Toli-Toli#	1,819	1,819	-	-	-	-
07. Buol#	758	758	-	-	-	-
71. Palu	3,951	3,951	2.42	4.82	2.42	4.82
73. South Sulawesi	1,340	1,336	8.89	9.09	9.05	9.08
01. Selayar	1,068	1,068	-1.03	0.68	-1.03	0.68
02. Bulukumba	993	993	6.03	8.07	6.03	8.07
03. Bantaeng	992	992	12.07	13.76	12.07	13.76
04. Jeneponto	762	762	9.42	9.95	9.42	9.95
05. Takalar	998	998	6.70	7.70	6.70	7.70
06. Gowa	995	995	1.26	2.12	1.26	2.12
07. Sinjai	999	999	9.03	8.03	9.03	8.03
08. Maros	1,253	1,253	5.40	6.49	5.40	6.49
09. Pangkajene Kepulauan	1,616	1,616	8.10	7.83	8.10	7.83
10. Barru	1,047	1,047	9.17	2.98	9.17	2.98
11. Bone	1,249	1,249	-2.61	-1.98	-2.61	-1.98
12. Soppeng	1,210	1,210	10.68	9.49	10.68	9.49
13. Wajo	1,575	1,485	7.03	9.10	10.12	9.14
14. Sidenreng Rappang	1,667	1,667	46.47	47.36	46.47	47.36
15. Pinrang	1,113	1,113	-13.04	-9.96	-13.04	-9.96
16. Enrekang	1,422	1,422	79.49	77.49	79.49	77.49
Luwu	-	-	14.27	-	14.27	-
17. Luwu#	867	867	-	-	-	-
22. North Luwu#	1,741	1,741	-	-	-	-
18. Tana Toraja	748	748	0.46	1.94	0.46	1.94
19. Polewali Mamasa	852	852	0.41	0.34	0.41	0.34
20. Majene	1,250	1,250	2.39	0.34	2.39	0.34
21. Mamuju	744	744	1.14	3.40	1.14	3.40
71. Ujung Pandang	2,577	2,577	13.81	14.80	13.81	14.80
72. Pare Pare	1,551	1,551	7.82	18.22	7.82	18.22
74. South East Sulawesi	948	948	-2.64	-1.58	-2.64	-1.58
01. Buton	791	791	-14.57	-11.51	-14.57	-11.51
02. Muna	809	809	-0.62	0.88	-0.62	0.88
03. Kendari	673	673	3.14	-2.49	3.14	-2.49
04. Kolaka	1,289	1,289	0.35	3.77	0.35	3.77
71. Kendari	1,847	1,847	1.78	7.29	1.78	7.29

Province District	Real per capita GRDP, 2000 (thousand rupiah)		Annual growth in real per capita GRDP			
	With oil and gas	Without oil and gas	With oil and gas		Without oil and gas	
			1999*	2000**	1999*	2000**
75. Gorontalo	1,117	1,117	-	-	-	-
Gorontalo			-	-	-	-
01. Boalemo#	1,292	1,292	-	-	-	-
02. Gorontalo#	960	960	-	-	-	-
71. Gorontalo	1,451	1,451	3.78	-	3.78	-
81. Maluku	950	945	-24.03	11.22	-23.32	18.76
South East Maluku						
01. West South East Maluku#	1,045	1,045	-	-	-	-
02. South East Maluku#	1,014	1,014	-9.07	-	-9.07	-
03. Central Maluku			-40.49	-	-42.12	-
Central Maluku#	558	546	-	-	-	-
04. Buru#	686	686	-	-	-	-
71. Ambon	1,667	1,667	-25.56	-8.50	-25.56	-8.50
82. North Maluku	1,094	1,034	-	-	-	-
Maluku North						
01. North Maluku#	961	961	-15.15	-	-15.15	-
71. Ternate#	1,225	1,225	-	-	-	-
02. Central Halmahera	1,377	1,055	-18.13	-	-15.01	-
91. Papua	4,180	4,084	-5.92	1.29	-5.23	1.37
01. Merauke	1,391	1,391	3.85	4.74	3.85	4.74
02. Jayawijaya	610	610	1.49	4.81	1.49	4.81
03. Jayapura	1,851	1,851	0.36	0.83	0.36	0.83
04. Nabire	-	-	-	-	-	-
05. Paniai	3,996	3,996	0.74	2.63	0.74	2.63
06. Puncak Jaya	-	-	-	-	-	-
07. Fak Fak	673	673	-5.43	10.23	-5.43	10.23
08. Mimika	-	-	-	-	-	-
09. Sorong	3,037	2,291	-25.74	2.70	-25.01	4.35
10. Manokwari	3,524	3,524	-3.13	4.06	-3.13	4.06
11. Yapen Waropen	1,835	1,835	-2.50	4.69	-2.50	4.69
12. Biak Numfor	2,257	2,257	-13.11	16.84	-13.11	16.84
71. Jayapura	2,338	2,338	-8.59	3.89	-8.59	3.89
72. Sorong						

Notes:

1. GRDP is expressed in 1993 constant prices.

2. The number before each province or district is the official area code. District refers to both regency (kabupaten) and city (kota). Where two districts have the same name, the one with a code number above 70 is a city.

* Provisional figures

** Very provisional figures

Sub-divided from the district above

Source: BPS special tabulation

16 Labour force and poverty conditions by district, 2002

Province District	Labour force participation rate (%)	Open unemploy- ment (%)	Employees working		Employ- ment in the informal sector (%)	Per capita expenditure		Poverty line (Rupiah capita/ month)	Poverty	
			< 14 hours per week (%)	< 35 hours per week (%)		Total (thousand rupiah/ month)	Food (% of total)		number of poor people (thousand)	poverty rate (%)
11. Nangroe Aceh Darussalam	60.9	6.2	4.5	39.3	76.2	169.7	69.4	102,116	1,199.9	29.8
01. Simeulue	68.4	2.5	5.8	44.5	94.5	162.6	64.8	101,435	21.0	38.1
02. Aceh Singkil	64.2	10.8	3.0	40.2	61.3	157.2	71.8	100,570	36.6	28.3
03. South Aceh	54.6	5.7	2.8	30.8	69.6	154.4	70.5	100,570	87.8	28.3
04. South East Aceh	71.3	4.9	5.6	53.4	92.6	152.4	74.7	104,000	64.5	29.8
05. East Aceh	58.9	7.7	4.0	49.4	72.6	158.0	70.2	101,435	118.8	25.3
06. Central Aceh	76.5	2.9	7.2	61.3	87.7	170.7	69.1	110,114	77.8	28.4
07. West Aceh	66.8	4.7	5.2	39.8	83.2	175.6	69.9	99,783	97.6	38.1
08. Aceh Besar	63.1	9.4	10.2	51.2	76.2	164.5	70.6	110,007	161.3	33.2
09. Pidie	67.6	8.1	3.7	40.2	87.4	164.7	76.0	98,902	225.9	44.0
10. Bireuen	61.3	10.2	2.9	29.7	63.5	154.9	71.7	100,570	86.7	25.3
11. North Aceh	63.1	3.5	3.0	21.1	80.4	161.9	66.1	103,970	125.0	25.5
71. Banda Aceh	49.9	14.4	2.6	24.1	34.4	264.9	60.2	112,540	22.6	10.3
72. Sabang	61.3	10.6	2.4	28.2	47.6	296.4	57.0	100,688	8.6	36.7
12. North Sumatera	70.6	10.7	5.39	33.77	65.4	181.9	66.8	103,987	1,883.9	15.8
01. Nias	81.8	2.0	1.35	24.79	92.8	122.8	76.7	83,240	224.0	31.4
02. Mandailing Natal	80.7	4.9	6.57	60.23	90.6	144.2	79.4	101,813	88.1	23.8
03. South Tapanuli	81.8	8.0	7.89	50.29	91.3	145.3	75.9	110,738	165.9	21.9
04. Central Tapanuli	73.7	5.0	6.47	39.29	65.8	131.5	73.4	79,257	74.7	29.9
05. North Tapanuli	78.1	3.4	6.71	53.06	91.3	158.1	73.1	109,762	85.6	20.9
06. Toba Samosir	85.9	2.3	22.16	65.37	91.2	170.4	75.3	123,597	74.1	24.0
07. Labuhan Batu	68.1	7.8	5.63	38.64	62.9	164.2	71.6	100,444	130.4	15.1
08. Asahan	69.1	9.2	6.38	31.82	56.7	156.2	71.4	99,549	158.4	15.7
09. Simalungun	73.8	11.2	8.92	40.20	66.9	152.5	69.6	93,617	163.1	18.9
10. Dairi	87.5	2.9	7.97	48.18	93.1	137.8	72.2	94,241	72.9	24.7
11. Karo	81.8	2.6	3.81	36.46	89.9	182.4	74.4	127,026	67.1	23.2
12. Deli Serdang	67.7	12.6	4.51	28.35	50.3	192.8	64.2	95,385	203.8	10.0
13. Langkat	67.4	11.5	2.81	31.63	61.0	165.1	73.3	112,089	194.4	20.6
71. Sibolga	61.7	13.9	1.87	15.15	48.5	185.0	67.3	105,345	8.5	10.1
72. Tanjung Balai	61.8	12.1	4.96	23.54	42.8	193.1	66.8	107,295	20.0	14.6
73. Pematang Siantar	65.7	17.0	0.90	13.19	52.8	244.6	63.9	126,774	30.3	12.3
74. Tebing Tinggi	62.1	15.6	2.98	16.99	59.1	195.2	67.4	121,667	15.1	11.9
75. Medan	59.0	16.9	1.87	13.85	38.9	264.3	55.9	125,422	93.2	4.8
76. Binjai	64.9	9.5	2.83	27.95	45.9	199.5	63.8	103,813	14.3	6.1
13. West Sumatera	65.2	11.0	7.97	39.32	66.7	194.4	67.0	122,506	496.4	11.6
01. Kepulauan Mentawai	61.8	5.1	9.12	49.16	94.8	131.4	79.8	91,638	11.2	18.0
02. Pesisir Selatan	60.8	6.1	7.26	30.03	76.8	159.4	69.7	104,673	51.7	13.1
03. Solok	68.3	6.6	6.64	40.93	76.0	168.4	72.4	99,594	69.8	15.9
04. Sawah Lunto/Sijunjung	69.5	7.2	11.78	44.40	65.6	156.6	75.1	101,602	53.7	17.0
05. Tanah Datar	62.5	9.8	7.84	40.53	72.7	192.0	67.7	115,048	29.2	9.0
06. Padang Pariaman	60.3	10.9	10.86	43.09	67.9	182.2	71.4	104,073	57.2	13.3
07. Agam	66.6	8.1	11.28	46.43	75.3	196.6	67.8	95,504	53.5	12.9
08. Limapuluh Koto	73.6	6.9	10.35	49.62	81.6	173.8	70.4	109,875	42.4	13.5
09. Pasaman	72.3	7.6	5.52	47.14	73.8	173.5	71.9	102,300	74.2	14.1
71. Padang	60.3	11.2	3.55	21.18	33.4	264.8	57.5	103,055	32.7	4.5
72. Solok	59.7	13.1	4.44	23.57	48.5	230.6	63.8	107,436	3.4	6.9
73. Sawah Lunto	59.8	11.5	8.84	37.48	58.8	218.7	63.1	105,772	3.2	6.3
74. Padang Panjang	62.0	9.5	8.84	34.18	49.8	243.0	60.8	127,090	2.0	4.9
75. Bukit Tinggi	64.6	11.5	5.83	24.31	44.3	263.3	59.9	122,436	3.4	3.6
76. Payakumbuh	64.9	10.5	11.40	41.74	59.9	201.0	65.7	106,359	8.7	8.8

Province District	Labour force participation rate (%)	Open unemploy- ment (%)	Employees working		Employ- ment in the informal sector (%)	Per capita expenditure		Poverty line (Rupiah capita/ month)	Poverty	
			< 14 hours per week (%)	< 35 hours per week (%)		Total (thousand rupiah/ month)	Food (% of total)		number of poor people (thousand)	poverty rate (%)
14. Riau	62.5	11.3	3.25	27.83	53.9	245.9	62.1	124,746	722.4	13.7
01. Kuantan Sengingi	62.1	10.0	6.66	65.09	78.7	166.7	76.5	128,388	64.4	27.7
02. Indragiri Hulu	63.8	6.4	6.50	35.33	60.4	190.2	71.6	117,914	53.2	20.6
03. Indragiri Hilir	64.0	5.2	1.68	36.12	84.5	179.4	74.7	129,030	107.6	18.8
04. Pelalawan	63.4	11.0	3.50	36.78	59.9	240.9	68.2	159,708	46.3	27.8
05. Siak	61.7	11.2	8.80	36.78	57.8	238.5	70.0	127,185	23.5	9.0
06. Kampar	61.0	9.4	6.26	42.46	63.1	209.2	68.1	126,990	77.7	15.8
07. Rokan Hulu	68.3	8.8	5.97	47.19	82.7	167.2	77.4	125,542	82.2	29.4
08. Bengkalis	60.1	10.3	2.74	30.63	58.3	225.1	61.2	117,569	67.0	12.5
09. Rokan Hilir	60.5	10.3	3.51	33.86	62.8	175.1	64.7	103,155	48.5	12.6
10. Kepulauan Riau	60.5	10.1	1.79	18.77	48.1	272.1	60.8	151,423	49.3	14.3
11. Karimun	61.6	10.5	2.04	21.45	44.4	274.7	56.6	112,873	9.2	6.1
12. Natuna	60.5	17.2	5.63	39.22	83.0	182.8	63.6	114,361	3.8	6.0
71. Pekanbaru	55.6	14.6	0.96	9.52	25.3	297.7	54.5	123,871	41.7	6.5
72. Batam	77.0	10.1	0.87	4.72	24.1	439.0	51.6	205,909	25.2	4.5
73. Dumai	60.5	9.9	0.24	9.39	34.0	248.7	62.2	113,223	22.9	12.6
15. Jambi	65.2	9.9	3.55	37.66	68.3	164.5	68.9	115,243	326.9	13.2
01. Kerinci	72.5	9.7	6.08	42.34	77.5	154.3	68.4	91,054	32.1	10.8
02. Merangin	63.9	5.4	3.18	44.02	77.1	153.2	72.6	95,957	42.1	16.0
03. Sarolangun	76.7	9.4	1.64	34.33	76.9	146.2	75.3	99,211	40.5	21.9
04. Batanghari	66.2	7.0	3.29	42.15	78.1	138.1	76.3	96,780	37.7	19.1
05. Muara Jambi	70.0	11.2	4.77	43.77	67.9	169.8	69.4	109,049	25.2	10.2
06. East Tanjung Jabung	60.9	5.8	2.49	39.04	72.1	135.4	72.5	72,846	22.3	11.9
07. West Tanjung Jabung	63.2	9.7	1.31	35.92	78.9	171.1	70.5	103,976	39.8	18.3
08. Tebo	66.1	10.4	5.45	53.16	73.5	149.4	70.2	85,046	31.4	13.6
09. Bungo	64.1	10.8	2.93	36.43	66.4	171.4	71.9	96,292	32.9	14.8
71. Jambi	56.1	11.8	2.78	14.76	33.1	209.0	59.7	88,700	23.0	5.3
16. South Sumatera	70.8	9.8	7.51	41.96	76.6	154.8	66.5	105,493	1,600.6	22.3
01. Ogan Komering Ulu	72.6	5.5	4.59	47.40	88.6	138.3	71.3	91,156	253.9	21.1
02. Ogan Komering Hilir	73.9	10.1	17.02	44.91	78.0	129.6	70.6	88,330	240.7	23.3
03. Muara Enim (Liot)	69.8	8.7	1.17	36.72	77.9	138.9	71.2	92,150	165.7	22.2
04. Lahat	77.4	10.7	11.95	47.63	87.0	140.5	72.3	99,338	193.2	28.2
05. Musi Rawas	72.1	7.7	10.14	52.02	82.8	134.1	73.3	98,917	219.1	32.9
06. Musi Banyuasin	71.6	6.3	6.05	44.82	84.9	118.7	73.9	91,220	381.2	28.8
71. Palembang	61.2	10.2	3.37	21.94	37.8	240.4	55.1	115,134	146.8	9.7
17. Bengkulu	75.4	10.1	5.74	29.33	78.7	154.1	65.6	101,437	372.4	22.7
01. South Bengkulu	74.8	13.3	8.01	35.92	88.5	120.2	73.8	91,032	140.0	36.3
02. Rejang Lebong	77.4	7.8	6.42	31.18	86.8	156.3	60.7	90,321	89.8	19.7
03. North Bengkulu	74.3	6.0	3.34	24.22	77.9	141.4	70.1	96,107	109.1	22.1
71. Bengkulu	61.0	17.1	5.49	24.91	45.3	214.5	60.4	108,481	33.5	11.0
18. Lampung	70.8	9.9	5.27	36.83	76.8	138.4	66.6	98,472	1,650.7	24.1
01. West Lampung	72.1	10.4	6.83	56.36	93.2	114.0	70.7	81,167	84.8	22.5
02. Tanggamus	69.4	9.1	5.55	31.81	85.3	137.4	66.7	93,068	191.5	23.6
03. South Lampung	73.8	7.8	6.79	41.36	74.5	131.7	69.4	88,721	353.9	30.4
04. East Lampung	70.8	9.3	5.78	32.99	85.4	130.5	69.9	99,923	273.2	30.5
05. Central Lampung	73.4	10.1	3.77	37.71	79.8	137.1	68.1	97,591	214.0	20.0
06. North Lampung	71.7	10.7	1.52	39.98	84.2	137.2	67.0	97,944	189.2	35.2
07. Way Kanan	77.1	11.6	5.96	39.86	85.6	115.0	74.3	90,232	118.0	33.7
08. Tulang Bawang	70.8	7.7	6.71	42.15	78.3	112.3	69.7	61,063	150.0	19.4
71. Bandar Lampung	62.6	15.1	4.35	18.76	35.4	201.1	56.3	94,002	63.5	8.3
72. Metro	57.6	13.7	2.15	23.20	53.0	200.8	56.7	89,406	12.5	10.4

Province District	Labour force participation rate (%)	Open unemploy- ment (%)	Employees working		Employ- ment in the informal sector (%)	Per capita expenditure		Poverty line (Rupiah capita/ month)	Poverty	
			< 14 hours per week (%)	< 35 hours per week (%)		Total (thousand rupiah/ month)	Food (% of total)		number of poor people (thousand)	poverty rate (%)
19. Bangka Belitung	65.3	8.9	4.84	34.85	55.9	205.3	68.7	127,862	106.2	11.6
01. Bangka	66.8	6.9	4.21	37.74	58.8	198.8	70.3	120,535	68.4	11.8
02. Belitung	66.9	11.2	5.77	30.54	58.4	192.2	72.6	122,602	29.8	14.4
71. Pangkal Pinang	56.7	14.0	6.34	28.08	36.8	256.2	58.0	117,083	8.0	6.3
31. DKI Jakarta	63.2	14.0	2.23	10.18	24.7	484.4	40.0	160,748	286.9	3.4
71. South Jakarta	63.7	12.4	2.29	11.88	24.6	576.1	34.8	149,105	45.1	2.6
72. East Jakarta	62.7	18.0	2.94	12.55	22.7	398.3	40.9	156,202	67.5	2.8
73. Central Jakarta	62.4	14.5	2.12	9.05	28.6	563.8	35.5	137,274	29.5	3.5
74. West Jakarta	63.7	11.6	0.88	6.68	24.0	517.1	42.0	162,748	77.2	4.0
75. North Jakarta	63.4	12.1	2.93	9.84	26.7	425.3	47.4	167,075	67.5	4.7
32. West Java	64.0	12.9	7.31	31.84	59.0	195.9	60.6	112,389	4,938.2	13.4
01. Bogor	62.9	13.3	5.63	26.61	54.9	189.1	62.8	95,003	451.3	12.5
02. Sukabumi	65.0	11.1	5.95	42.28	65.7	147.5	68.8	94,107	362.2	17.0
03. Cianjur	69.9	8.4	8.34	47.86	78.9	141.2	69.2	98,338	368.6	18.5
04. Bandung	65.5	15.5	5.88	22.46	45.1	211.6	59.1	105,071	543.3	12.5
05. Garut	67.7	11.1	4.14	34.53	69.3	140.5	66.7	82,448	323.7	15.4
06. Tasik Malaya	67.8	12.0	7.87	35.24	67.6	155.7	64.8	91,403	341.1	16.2
07. Ciamis	70.3	8.4	8.92	43.77	77.7	164.4	65.1	103,396	265.8	16.2
08. Kuningan	65.3	10.4	20.85	51.17	73.8	151.0	68.2	101,711	203.3	20.4
09. Cirebon	64.9	11.5	9.98	40.05	75.1	135.0	68.5	89,297	388.4	19.6
10. Majalengka	68.5	9.2	9.59	44.97	67.8	163.0	66.1	99,187	214.3	18.9
11. Sumedang	66.8	12.4	14.60	42.97	69.1	203.9	62.2	108,798	142.8	14.4
12. Indramayu	66.0	9.3	12.85	40.62	74.6	198.5	65.5	117,551	300.3	18.7
13. Subang	63.7	9.7	8.42	42.49	80.4	165.9	68.1	113,611	224.3	16.6
14. Purwakarta	66.2	10.4	7.28	35.13	56.0	193.6	65.8	110,712	101.4	14.0
15. Karawang	61.0	15.2	8.11	31.33	59.0	189.1	64.9	110,299	267.4	14.6
16. Bekasi	58.8	13.8	5.09	13.99	43.8	225.4	56.8	108,369	118.1	6.6
71. Bogor	57.0	15.2	1.69	10.33	30.4	256.7	56.2	118,857	65.4	7.3
72. Sukabumi	56.1	23.1	3.36	20.91	40.2	220.1	61.5	101,748	21.7	8.3
73. Bandung	58.6	15.0	3.54	15.84	35.0	310.4	48.1	115,332	75.3	3.5
74. Cirebon	60.4	15.8	5.09	20.24	45.5	211.0	57.3	97,364	24.7	9.0
75. Bekasi	59.7	14.7	2.24	10.89	26.5	288.8	48.8	96,718	66.2	3.7
76. Depok	54.5	16.4	4.28	14.96	27.8	308.0	54.6	140,129	68.5	5.6
33. Central Java	70.5	8.1	7.67	36.21	66.6	156.2	61.0	106,438	7,308.3	23.1
01. Cilacap	69.9	12.1	11.56	43.02	79.3	142.5	60.6	89,780	360.7	22.1
02. Banyumas	66.6	7.8	6.17	31.56	68.4	167.2	60.8	103,531	336.8	22.9
03. Purbalingga	66.9	7.4	11.15	44.76	73.5	132.7	66.2	95,292	258.2	32.5
04. Banjarnegara	71.4	7.8	5.68	36.13	78.5	118.6	67.8	90,414	256.9	30.3
05. Kebumen	65.3	10.3	9.57	38.13	72.1	131.2	66.8	95,915	372.6	31.7
06. Purworejo	67.0	5.2	6.36	37.26	71.9	152.9	59.9	97,747	175.5	24.9
07. Wonosobo	73.6	5.0	4.63	28.69	77.8	133.5	68.9	97,776	253.5	33.8
08. Magelang	75.5	5.5	8.84	44.06	68.0	133.4	60.0	81,865	224.0	19.9
09. Boyolali	75.9	4.6	5.49	40.26	71.1	133.1	61.0	88,363	188.4	20.8
10. Klaten	68.9	7.0	9.65	33.51	63.2	161.1	60.7	104,347	286.5	24.5
11. Sukoharjo	70.9	6.9	9.79	32.49	57.4	183.3	56.5	105,071	134.8	16.9
12. Wonogiri	75.4	5.4	6.70	44.70	78.2	149.3	62.7	102,932	245.8	25.2
13. Karanganyar	72.9	5.3	6.82	28.23	63.9	180.7	57.2	107,583	134.0	17.0
14. Sragen	71.9	9.6	10.73	41.97	69.0	141.6	63.8	95,302	245.0	28.6
15. Grobogan	69.5	7.2	11.25	51.66	82.0	138.1	67.5	101,318	400.9	31.1
16. Blora	73.0	5.2	10.85	52.69	84.9	127.8	63.7	89,982	218.4	26.6
17. Rembang	69.6	5.7	10.33	39.71	81.0	156.9	68.7	112,817	189.0	33.4
18. Pati	70.6	7.2	6.77	40.93	70.8	144.7	65.0	107,970	263.8	22.5
19. Kudus	72.7	7.3	5.06	26.13	43.8	162.0	58.0	102,502	90.8	12.7
20. Jepara	73.6	4.3	12.06	34.27	43.4	171.2	57.9	101,260	105.5	10.6
21. Demak	70.2	8.4	4.82	33.69	60.6	169.0	61.8	104,394	243.8	24.1
22. Semarang	76.4	6.5	6.04	29.06	62.0	167.6	60.0	98,117	147.9	17.6

Province District	Labour force participation rate (%)	Open unemploy- ment (%)	Employees working		Employ- ment in the informal sector (%)	Per capita expenditure		Poverty line (Rupiah capita/ month)	Poverty	
			< 14 hours per week (%)	< 35 hours per week (%)		Total (thousand rupiah/ month)	Food (% of total)		number of poor people (thousand)	poverty rate (%)
20. Jepara	73.6	4.3	12.06	34.27	43.4	171.2	57.9	101,260	105.5	10.6
21. Demak	70.2	8.4	4.82	33.69	60.6	169.0	61.8	104,394	243.8	24.1
22. Semarang	76.4	6.5	6.04	29.06	62.0	167.6	60.0	98,117	147.9	17.6
23. Temanggung	77.1	5.3	4.37	34.46	82.0	139.4	58.4	77,530	112.6	15.8
24. Kendal	71.3	7.8	12.59	44.62	68.8	171.8	56.0	98,304	204.1	23.8
25. Batang	69.3	11.1	7.41	32.70	53.8	133.3	65.0	81,807	155.0	23.0
26. Pekalongan	70.7	6.9	8.36	33.15	57.0	144.8	66.0	105,265	215.3	26.3
27. Pemalang	68.0	11.3	6.52	35.15	68.6	138.7	66.3	96,633	330.8	24.6
28. Tegal	69.1	10.5	8.82	38.91	70.8	154.9	63.5	96,576	313.4	22.2
29. Brebes	72.7	11.5	5.11	39.83	76.7	146.8	66.2	107,470	576.7	33.4
71. Magelang	62.0	10.6	5.45	21.01	41.5	241.0	54.1	120,406	16.4	14.1
72. Surakarta	65.6	11.7	2.58	14.68	37.7	219.4	51.8	108,328	69.4	14.2
73. Salatiga	62.5	12.0	4.03	18.25	43.7	264.4	49.3	106,103	20.1	12.3
74. Semarang	64.2	13.4	2.26	12.03	29.0	250.1	48.4	111,696	103.4	7.1
75. Pekalongan	66.1	12.8	3.59	14.75	34.8	170.6	57.3	95,947	26.3	9.9
76. Tegal	65.5	12.1	5.90	18.93	45.1	195.3	58.3	115,809	31.7	13.3
34. D. I. Yogyakarta	70.0	6.6	6.41	31.03	58.9	230.3	50.8	112,995	635.7	20.1
01. Kulon Progo	67.5	6.1	10.34	42.79	72.3	158.8	58.1	105,404	93.0	25.1
02. Bantul	70.5	6.5	7.39	31.44	53.7	189.6	55.0	106,807	157.2	19.8
03. Gunung Kidul	80.7	1.8	5.53	33.13	82.5	146.7	62.1	96,701	174.1	25.9
04. Sleman	64.8	10.3	5.13	28.24	43.5	312.2	45.1	120,316	154.2	16.7
71. Yogyakarta	58.4	8.3	4.64	18.21	38.6	330.9	46.4	132,059	57.2	14.5
35. East Java	68.2	8.0	8.21	39.00	64.6	169.4	60.2	106,777	7,701.2	21.9
01. Pacitan	79.3	4.6	5.86	39.86	86.4	137.8	65.1	87,615	132.3	25.0
02. Ponorogo	70.6	6.0	14.55	51.89	79.9	135.4	60.2	79,666	175.3	20.8
03. Trenggalek	72.8	7.1	21.03	61.52	83.0	143.6	62.5	91,431	193.0	29.6
04. Tulungagung	69.9	8.3	13.39	41.55	70.9	163.4	59.4	97,480	169.5	18.1
05. Blitar	68.5	9.2	8.71	42.42	72.1	168.0	57.2	96,950	197.9	18.6
06. Kediri	71.0	7.1	9.97	41.33	58.3	152.1	61.8	93,476	281.8	19.9
07. Malang	69.4	6.5	6.54	38.40	61.6	161.6	59.5	90,072	464.8	19.1
08. Lumajang	71.5	8.3	8.11	43.48	79.7	131.6	65.0	88,100	216.5	22.3
09. Jember	67.2	6.5	11.29	41.80	61.3	138.1	62.4	85,350	412.0	18.7
10. Banyuwangi	70.0	7.0	10.32	42.69	66.6	152.1	59.7	95,799	259.6	17.4
11. Bondowoso	70.6	4.5	8.33	48.80	75.4	127.2	68.1	97,048	178.8	25.8
12. Situbondo	68.2	4.7	11.98	50.94	73.4	148.5	65.9	99,151	144.1	23.7
13. Probolinggo	67.2	6.3	8.18	47.94	77.2	147.3	65.0	94,922	254.8	25.0
14. Pasuruan	69.4	6.7	4.34	30.44	48.5	159.8	63.6	98,289	314.4	22.5
15. Sidoarjo	65.5	9.6	2.92	14.93	30.0	250.2	57.2	129,386	215.7	13.2
16. Mojokerto	70.2	9.5	10.62	38.34	68.6	178.3	62.1	117,322	187.5	20.2
17. Jombang	64.3	11.8	8.01	39.50	61.8	151.8	64.0	99,842	286.4	25.2
18. Nganjuk	64.7	8.2	6.15	36.55	76.4	149.8	64.5	99,459	269.1	27.6
19. Madiun	64.6	10.1	6.79	38.02	59.5	145.9	65.5	101,690	167.3	26.1
20. Magetan	71.1	5.9	6.66	43.37	75.8	157.6	59.3	85,788	105.0	17.2
21. Ngawi	65.0	8.7	16.94	50.69	75.7	128.3	65.8	85,650	217.3	26.7
22. Bojonegoro	68.1	6.9	6.97	38.39	76.8	127.3	66.1	94,498	332.7	28.3
23. Tuban	73.3	6.0	4.72	25.95	79.5	135.9	66.5	97,147	323.2	30.4
24. Lamongan	67.1	5.7	8.51	49.67	81.7	148.1	65.6	108,008	351.8	29.7
25. Gresik	68.6	8.2	2.17	24.87	49.0	244.1	53.0	125,357	244.2	23.7
26. Bangkalan	68.6	14.3	10.51	55.93	82.6	141.3	70.2	107,181	282.1	34.7
27. Sampang	71.4	4.6	9.59	67.69	85.3	127.3	75.1	109,317	316.2	41.8
28. Pamekasan	71.9	11.0	12.89	64.23	84.5	139.7	67.9	108,559	243.7	34.9
29. Sumenep	72.9	6.5	12.87	62.50	82.6	138.5	68.9	100,563	308.8	31.1
71. Kediri	66.1	16.3	1.75	17.52	42.2	212.5	56.5	116,666	41.6	16.0
72. Blitar	64.6	12.9	6.73	23.73	48.7	196.6	54.8	98,479	16.2	12.8
73. Malang	59.4	13.9	3.99	19.74	33.3	311.3	45.1	115,991	71.8	9.4
74. Probolinggo	60.5	12.2	4.31	28.58	48.2	188.2	59.8	122,388	45.1	23.3
75. Pasuruan	58.4	9.1	4.10	21.82	37.6	196.5	58.3	112,247	28.7	16.8
76. Mojokerto	62.3	10.0	3.01	15.28	39.7	230.5	54.3	121,326	13.7	12.4
77. Madiun	58.9	15.8	3.16	19.98	41.9	205.0	55.6	98,982	18.5	11.4
78. Surabaya	63.3	9.9	2.32	10.65	30.4	273.3	51.3	120,736	219.9	8.4

Province District	Labour force participation rate (%)	Open unemploy- ment (%)	Employees working		Employ- ment in the informal sector (%)	Per capita expenditure		Poverty line (Rupiah capita/ month)	Poverty	
			< 14 hours per week (%)	< 35 hours per week (%)		Total (thousand rupiah/ month)	Food (% of total)		number of poor people (thousand)	poverty rate (%)
36. Banten	62.5	12.7	6.46	26.16	51.1	239.9	57.2	111,591	786.7	9.2
01. Pandeglang	68.2	12.7	11.40	41.55	80.5	154.6	73.3	105,402	157.3	15.1
02. Lebak	68.3	14.1	12.01	40.41	81.1	129.5	70.8	89,890	168.7	16.2
03. Tangerang	61.9	11.7	4.92	19.46	34.5	303.7	51.9	109,907	208.7	7.0
04. Serang	61.1	13.7	6.41	35.95	66.6	187.0	64.6	91,134	170.1	9.8
71. Tangerang	58.8	11.7	2.47	9.12	25.7	312.2	52.6	146,330	62.0	4.4
72. Cilegon	55.6	18.4	2.62	14.35	42.6	251.2	57.3	111,485	19.9	6.4
51. Bali	75.3	5.9	4.45	31.65	58.9	267.1	53.7	130,586	221.8	6.9
01. Jembrana	76.9	4.1	7.92	40.76	66.0	246.6	58.6	127,491	19.0	8.1
02. Tabanan	75.9	4.0	3.01	31.09	60.8	254.0	59.5	132,835	31.8	8.4
03. Badung	72.5	8.8	2.23	22.14	40.6	280.8	49.8	136,766	16.9	4.7
04. Gianyar	71.6	5.0	2.18	24.23	53.6	226.2	54.4	118,804	26.1	6.5
05. Klungkung	79.9	6.9	3.18	34.08	75.8	216.5	58.5	119,009	12.5	8.0
06. Bangli	80.7	2.8	2.11	44.20	76.2	201.6	56.6	110,654	15.0	7.6
07. Karangasem	81.9	7.0	5.91	40.61	79.9	190.8	61.2	104,717	31.0	8.6
08. Buleleng	74.2	5.6	8.46	42.89	71.7	202.1	63.2	110,988	50.3	9.0
71. Denpasar	72.6	7.1	3.36	15.71	30.1	456.4	44.5	172,695	19.3	3.4
52. West Nusa Tenggara	72.4	8.9	16.06	49.47	77.6	147.6	68.6	103,139	1,145.8	27.8
01. West Lombok	72.9	10.4	11.41	41.93	70.9	138.4	69.3	99,935	254.4	33.1
02. Central Lombok	80.5	5.9	23.65	56.48	75.3	143.1	69.0	102,222	230.7	29.3
03. East Lombok	69.0	10.3	12.04	52.60	87.6	143.2	71.3	99,099	294.1	29.6
04. Sumbawa	74.4	6.8	22.24	49.99	78.1	189.9	65.7	110,487	121.8	25.3
05. Dompu	74.5	6.2	19.63	54.18	87.1	120.4	72.9	91,857	63.2	28.6
06. Bima	72.3	9.5	15.39	54.57	81.8	125.6	72.0	83,947	133.7	25.8
71. Mataram	60.4	13.4	4.99	24.39	46.0	180.1	60.0	83,854	47.2	12.8
53. East Nusa Tenggara	71.8	6.0	11.95	56.23	86.8	112.6	71.3	86,993	1,206.5	30.7
01. West Sumba	77.9	6.7	12.52	61.89	91.4	85.7	77.9	75,334	173.3	47.3
02. East Sumba	75.5	4.2	12.26	60.34	89.4	116.6	74.5	97,583	83.8	43.9
03. Kupang	71.2	4.0	15.74	48.64	92.3	103.0	76.7	77,454	148.0	36.4
04. Southern Central Timor	68.0	7.3	17.58	71.06	92.4	95.6	77.9	75,293	169.3	42.7
05. Northern Central Timor	70.7	2.5	14.88	61.30	85.4	102.7	74.3	82,419	63.5	31.8
06. Belu	70.4	8.3	8.53	45.12	84.6	130.2	66.7	73,327	53.6	18.5
07. Alor	67.2	11.3	11.53	51.54	84.9	94.6	70.7	59,961	50.6	30.1
08. Lembata	71.7	8.4	7.86	65.30	89.0	104.9	74.5	87,960	31.3	34.5
09. East Flores	66.3	5.8	17.53	63.51	81.6	120.5	69.6	82,325	38.1	18.9
10. Sikka	71.7	5.1	15.24	62.15	86.4	109.7	65.8	66,696	51.1	19.2
11. Ende	82.5	4.5	13.10	68.40	89.7	110.1	71.4	75,156	51.8	22.1
12. Ngada	67.2	2.7	9.67	65.74	87.5	141.4	66.2	92,923	38.6	16.9
13. Manggarai	78.9	4.9	6.33	47.59	91.7	103.7	73.7	80,313	224.1	35.5
71. Kupang	55.3	14.2	5.29	21.67	39.6	187.5	61.2	88,777	29.2	11.5
61. West Kalimantan	72.3	7.6	5.82	38.34	72.9	172.7	67.2	105,783	644.2	15.5
01. Sambas	75.5	7.3	9.12	41.16	84.8	155.2	67.1	90,616	66.2	13.7
02. Bengkayang	68.9	9.6	8.13	37.81	72.2	175.2	70.7	96,583	59.1	16.9
03. Landak	73.7	5.3	0.61	26.16	85.5	122.0	78.8	76,878	77.8	27.0
04. Pontianak	66.4	9.6	6.48	27.83	61.4	166.5	70.9	93,182	89.2	12.4
05. Sanggau	72.7	7.3	3.36	49.52	78.1	147.3	72.7	85,402	75.3	12.8
06. Ketapang	71.8	7.1	9.94	45.13	66.5	173.1	70.7	103,827	90.9	18.2
07. Sintang	82.6	5.2	2.95	44.32	82.2	149.2	71.0	96,305	116.4	21.6
08. Kapuas Hulu	79.3	5.6	1.94	37.83	89.3	158.4	74.7	105,131	36.9	17.3
71. Pontianak	58.7	12.6	7.87	25.18	32.5	291.5	50.3	95,711	32.4	6.7

Province District	Labour force participation rate (%)	Open unemploy- ment (%)	Employees working		Employ- ment in the informal sector (%)	Per capita expenditure		Poverty line (Rupiah capita/ month)	Poverty	
			< 14 hours per week (%)	< 35 hours per week (%)		Total (thousand rupiah/ month)	Food (% of total)		number of poor people (thousand)	poverty rate (%)
62. Central Kalimantan	69.9	8.5	3.85	31.53	74.0	195.2	71.4	113,205	231.4	11.9
01. West Kotawaringin	64.3	10.0	2.25	37.14	69.0	239.2	66.6	129,836	29.4	10.7
02. East Kotawaringin	63.7	8.2	2.71	26.33	63.0	197.9	74.2	116,175	75.1	13.1
03. Kapuas	76.3	9.4	4.24	29.67	84.1	172.9	74.2	85,619	67.5	12.3
04. South Barito	76.4	5.8	4.93	38.57	86.5	168.1	73.6	100,598	26.4	14.1
05. North Barito	72.2	4.7	7.28	38.38	86.7	179.8	72.8	106,757	22.3	11.2
71. Palangka Raya	55.3	12.9	2.75	26.18	38.4	234.6	61.5	109,851	10.7	6.2
63. South Kalimantan	72.2	7.4	6.47	38.66	72.8	192.9	67.4	98,596	259.8	8.5
01. Tanah Laut	76.6	6.4	6.95	39.11	75.9	171.3	68.3	84,705	21.4	8.9
02. Kota Baru	72.2	5.3	7.01	35.10	68.0	230.3	68.9	104,549	28.7	6.6
03. Banjar	69.8	8.3	4.93	41.65	83.0	170.0	69.9	90,632	35.4	8.4
04. Barito Kuala	77.8	4.9	8.06	31.25	75.0	174.2	71.1	95,659	25.0	10.0
05. Tapin	75.0	8.2	7.72	47.83	81.1	208.6	66.0	95,629	14.0	9.7
06. South Hulu Sungai	77.9	9.7	6.25	43.34	79.1	184.4	73.7	110,069	25.2	12.7
07. Central Hulu Sungai	79.5	7.3	4.70	43.02	85.7	154.9	72.0	79,752	27.3	12.2
08. North Hulu Sungai	79.4	4.0	9.61	55.33	83.9	137.7	72.9	75,764	35.9	12.2
09. Tabalong	76.2	4.2	8.21	59.64	80.2	154.8	68.2	79,857	20.7	11.9
71. Banjarmasin	62.6	12.6	4.26	18.90	47.5	245.1	60.1	84,460	19.9	3.7
72. Banjar Baru	58.9	8.3	4.27	23.98	47.9	238.8	63.3	103,909	6.4	4.9
64. East Kalimantan	65.6	12.3	4.80	27.99	53.8	253.5	58.8	139,434	313.0	12.2
01. Pasir	66.2	10.1	7.28	41.44	67.3	192.1	63.8	104,152	44.9	16.0
02. West Kutai	70.9	10.4	5.56	46.33	77.1	184.6	66.9	114,940	21.3	15.0
03. Kutai	66.4	12.5	6.24	35.17	58.2	241.2	62.3	125,796	69.1	15.5
04. East Kutai	62.5	5.4	4.80	41.68	67.7	197.5	67.5	120,612	27.7	17.5
05. Berau	74.2	6.5	3.11	24.84	72.4	242.8	63.7	145,132	15.7	11.9
06. Malinau	76.7	3.8	0.81	33.59	91.6	150.9	73.4	117,595	10.1	26.4
07. Bulongan	71.2	12.4	3.07	32.39	72.9	230.5	70.8	129,714	20.9	23.8
08. Nunukan	69.2	8.2	5.35	33.67	77.2	212.0	67.7	129,905	18.7	21.8
71. Balikpapan	62.2	17.2	5.59	17.11	32.2	315.5	51.4	134,967	16.0	3.8
72. Samarinda	64.3	13.5	3.63	18.14	38.1	269.4	57.0	125,526	46.9	8.6
73. Tarakan	62.7	16.9	2.06	12.48	49.2	252.5	54.6	139,988	13.0	10.9
74. Bontang	59.7	12.0	2.00	11.97	23.2	419.4	50.0	176,275	8.7	8.2
71. North Sulawesi	63.2	15.0	5.60	36.42	58.8	207.0	63.8	111,178	229.3	11.2
01. Bolaang Mongondow	62.2	14.5	5.41	40.42	64.7	152.4	69.9	93,826	65.3	14.8
02. Minahasa	64.3	13.5	5.82	39.23	61.0	217.8	65.3	118,540	93.4	11.6
03. Sangihe Talaud	62.2	15.4	10.69	55.44	78.4	144.3	70.2	84,321	37.5	14.3
71. Manado	61.9	18.1	1.64	19.35	37.7	282.7	55.3	134,391	19.8	5.1
72. Bitung	57.2	16.2	6.09	18.87	49.4	224.8	64.1	125,679	13.3	8.9
72. Central Sulawesi	68.9	9.6	8.61	43.73	76.4	155.7	67.4	105,190	564.6	24.9
01. Banggai Kepulauan	74.0	7.5	10.54	60.60	89.2	126.4	74.5	95,334	94.6	29.6
02. Banggai	70.8	8.1	8.80	37.51	78.7	148.5	66.9	88,139	57.9	20.9
03. Morowali	68.9	10.9	4.25	36.12	84.9	137.0	74.1	99,542	46.2	28.6
04. Poso	66.9	8.5	5.92	43.13	84.3	145.4	73.0	101,099	68.4	33.2
05. Donggala	72.3	7.9	11.11	47.41	78.8	153.9	68.3	97,747	195.3	26.1
06. Toli-Toli	58.8	9.4	5.64	37.80	71.3	154.7	67.1	101,361	44.0	25.0
07. Buol	59.1	10.7	5.41	51.33	74.2	126.7	73.3	92,827	29.0	28.3
71. Palu	55.8	18.4	5.21	21.87	39.9	231.8	55.2	90,330	29.2	10.6

Province District	Labour force participation rate (%)	Open unemploy- ment (%)	Employees working		Employ- ment in the informal sector (%)	Per capita expenditure		Poverty line (Rupiah capita/ month)	Poverty	
			< 14 hours per week (%)	< 35 hours per week (%)		Total (thousand rupiah/ month)	Food (% of total)		number of poor people (thousand)	poverty rate (%)
73. South Sulawesi	61.7	14.4	11.90	49.56	75.4	153.0	66.1	91,937	1,309.2	15.9
01. Selayar	65.3	11.7	12.97	56.40	84.8	136.4	72.8	89,177	23.5	22.1
02. Bulukumba	62.8	8.9	13.55	53.18	81.6	134.1	66.2	74,022	49.1	13.1
03. Bantaeng	63.7	8.4	7.82	48.62	82.2	127.5	66.8	64,419	18.7	11.5
04. Jeneponto	68.4	10.7	12.06	54.07	88.1	122.7	74.4	89,107	76.8	23.1
05. Takalar	64.1	11.7	21.98	57.98	78.7	133.8	71.4	90,993	37.8	15.8
06. Gowa	60.1	8.6	13.53	45.49	67.6	135.7	68.9	86,457	107.4	19.6
07. Sinjai	60.0	5.7	15.77	53.03	79.6	127.5	70.6	82,430	33.6	16.0
08. Maros	59.3	8.3	12.04	45.02	68.2	146.3	70.4	98,228	67.9	23.7
09. Pangkajene Kepulauan	58.5	7.8	12.79	49.08	73.8	159.9	73.2	108,004	69.0	25.8
10. Barru	57.1	16.7	16.28	53.62	75.3	167.6	66.6	98,191	19.9	13.0
11. Bone	62.5	12.6	16.02	61.94	82.8	128.9	66.6	78,609	115.2	17.0
12. Soppeng	59.7	15.4	11.01	53.91	80.4	146.3	64.4	78,621	10.6	4.9
13. Wajo	58.8	8.9	7.63	44.20	85.5	153.2	68.9	94,255	36.2	10.0
14. Sidenreng Rappang	57.5	14.3	9.96	43.42	75.7	157.2	63.2	90,382	25.1	10.7
15. Pinrang	57.2	9.7	9.56	51.46	79.3	169.8	62.6	87,768	32.7	10.6
16. Enrekang	73.2	6.5	9.20	58.77	91.7	126.1	71.7	92,652	37.8	22.0
17. Luwu	66.4	12.3	21.36	67.10	86.1	135.2	71.2	88,947	79.9	19.1
18. Tana Toraja	60.1	9.0	17.61	64.06	85.4	126.2	72.3	88,204	77.3	18.8
19. Polewali Mamasa	71.5	8.4	12.72	58.46	86.5	118.3	77.9	87,270	147.9	31.4
20. Majene	62.1	11.1	7.12	54.80	82.2	130.4	76.7	90,901	35.7	29.0
21. Mamuju	74.2	2.8	10.60	51.19	90.7	145.3	73.1	88,595	62.0	18.7
22. North Luwu	63.0	16.7	8.88	57.21	81.5	129.6	67.9	77,452	71.6	15.4
71. Ujung Pandang	56.5	21.8	3.40	16.46	34.6	242.1	54.7	103,381	63.4	5.6
72. Pare Pare	53.7	21.6	5.94	19.65	46.6	200.9	61.9	91,493	10.0	9.3
74. South East Sulawesi	69.9	10.2	9.21	43.24	81.2	149.2	66.9	99,376	463.8	24.2
01. Buton	70.4	14.2	6.56	40.69	87.3	132.1	67.0	86,227	140.3	22.9
02. Muna	74.1	5.9	15.20	52.00	84.4	146.3	69.0	95,201	73.4	26.0
03. Kendari	76.1	7.5	8.05	43.69	84.4	117.7	70.5	80,350	132.7	28.6
04. Kolaka	66.5	8.2	12.54	49.92	81.9	178.5	70.1	134,465	97.2	28.4
71. Kendari	55.7	14.7	4.73	21.86	43.7	224.2	56.4	100,155	20.1	9.5
75. Gorontalo	61.6	13.6	6.47	36.70	68.9	122.2	71.6	92,526	274.7	32.1
01. Boalemo	62.7	13.7	2.84	41.08	76.0	109.3	75.6	84,168	63.7	33.4
02. Gorontalo	62.3	13.0	8.39	38.66	71.6	112.0	72.9	83,131	192.7	36.6
71. Gorontalo	57.8	16.0	4.03	22.57	48.2	179.0	65.2	100,133	18.3	13.3
81. Maluku	57.7	11.8	5.2	37.4	78.6	171.0	69.9	114,973	418.8	34.8
01. West South-East Maluku	60.7	5.0	6.0	34.6	91.1	155.1	76.5	121,551	66.9	44.0
02. South-East Maluku	56.5	16.0	0.6	30.6	48.2	154.2	70.8	121,551	76.9	39.3
03. Central Maluku	57.5	6.5	6.2	46.4	86.4	156.5	73.0	120,549	211.3	40.0
04. Buru	58.6	7.8	4.2	27.2	90.8	182.5	72.3	121,551	48.7	38.1
71. Ambon	55.0	16.4	3.8	29.6	48.1	224.8	60.2	131,908	15.0	7.5
82. North Maluku	64.2	11.4	5.3	34.3	73.1	165.4	66.8	117,681	110.1	14.0
01. North Maluku	69.0	8.5	6.1	38.5	80.6	135.5	70.8	109,593	71.1	15.2
02. Central Halmahera	60.2	6.8	4.7	30.7	74.3	185.5	70.6	110,308	31.2	21.3
71. Ternate	55.2	25.7	3.2	21.5	40.3	255.3	55.7	116,115	7.9	4.6

Province District	Labour force participation rate (%)	Open unemploy- ment (%)	Employees working		Employ- ment in the informal sector (%)	Per capita expenditure		Poverty line (Rupiah capita/ month)	Poverty	
			< 14 hours per week (%)	< 35 hours per week (%)		Total (thousand rupiah/ month)	Food (% of total)		number of poor people (thousand)	poverty rate (%)
91. Papua	77.4	4.3	6.3	50.7	84.5	180.4	65.2	117,963	984.7	41.8
01. Merauke	79.4	1.9	6.6	54.6	89.0	172.8	65.5	103,278	92.9	30.4
02. Jayawijaya	96.6	0.8	2.9	44.7	97.1	113.2	62.1	119,597	184.1	45.7
03. Jayapura	73.7	4.8	11.4	68.6	79.0	214.3	69.9	109,060	45.9	29.8
04. Nabire	87.3	2.1	16.9	76.7	97.2	101.0	60.6	108,910	39.0	45.0
05. Paniai	74.8	1.2	11.3	80.0	96.2	176.2	69.5	105,796	32.8	40.4
06. Puncak Jaya	81.1	0.5	1.5	43.5	90.3	125.7	67.4	108,910	56.2	41.8
07. Fak Fak	75.2	3.7	4.4	39.6	75.8	156.7	67.3	102,271	93.3	52.6
08. Mimika	64.2	7.7	1.4	41.6	82.6	196.3	64.2	109,673	103.9	50.2
09. Sorong	62.0	7.5	1.9	49.8	83.5	161.8	63.0	108,245	94.2	43.1
10. Manokwari	81.1	1.4	20.0	46.1	99.4	147.4	85.3	103,572	64.1	58.4
11. Yapen Waropen	91.4	1.0	3.3	73.4	99.0	233.6	93.1	119,597	54.5	61.0
12. Biak Numfor	62.1	6.7	3.1	42.6	70.1	252.7	60.0	102,271	33.2	41.7
71. Jayapura	55.3	20.4	1.4	15.0	30.3	289.4	56.4	109,886	42.3	24.8
72. Sorong	63.5	16.5	2.8	19.9	34.4	274.1	61.6	108,910	48.4	41.8
Indonesia	67.7	10.6	7.1	35.2	64.1	206.3	58.47	108,889	38,394.1	18.2

Note:

1. The number before each province or district is the official area code. District refers to both regency (kabupaten) and city (kota). Where two districts have the same name, the one with a code number above 70 is a city.

Source: BPS special tabulation

17 Human Development Expenditure by district, 2001–2002

Province District	2001				2002		
	Development expenditure as a % of government expenditure	Social services as a % of development expenditure	Expenditure for priority social services		Household expenditure % for		
			% of social expenditure	% of government expenditure	Education	Health	Health and Education
11. Nangroe Aceh Darussalam	45.76	47.40	65.27	14.16	2.08	1.21	3.29
01. Simeulue	69.92	30.06	4.45	0.94	0.33	0.74	1.07
02. Aceh Singkil	70.38	36.84	85.14	22.07	0.78	1.55	2.33
03. South Aceh	38.90	35.45	81.00	11.17	1.19	1.39	2.58
04. South East Aceh	53.06	25.92	64.43	8.86	1.30	1.21	2.51
05. East Aceh	43.97	38.10	80.85	13.55	2.18	1.07	3.25
06. Central Aceh	48.43	30.46	72.35	10.67	1.39	1.71	3.10
07. West Aceh	64.26	44.72	80.35	23.09	1.42	0.96	2.38
08. Aceh Besar	48.99	34.31	86.63	14.56	2.86	1.23	4.09
09. Pidie	41.65	26.49	87.69	9.67	1.43	1.24	2.67
10. Bireuen	43.60	35.60	69.70	10.82	3.96	1.42	5.37
11. North Aceh	63.72	42.61	73.57	19.97	3.39	0.66	4.05
71. Banda Aceh	36.65	38.12	47.31	6.61	4.65	1.25	5.89
72. Sabang	72.34	45.75	45.49	15.05	0.98	1.47	2.44
12. North Sumatera	31.43	25.11	70.84	5.59	2.36	2.00	4.35
01. Nias	45.86	36.36	97.66	16.28	0.64	0.81	1.45
02. Mandailing Natal	51.57	19.46	82.76	8.31	0.60	1.46	2.06
03. South Tapanuli	22.20	27.74	85.85	5.29	0.80	1.19	1.99
04. Central Tapanuli	34.93	12.44	42.96	1.87	1.02	1.14	2.16
05. North Tapanuli	41.89	18.05	68.62	5.19	1.86	1.77	3.63
06. Toba Samosir	39.37	20.38	84.89	6.81	1.71	2.33	4.04
07. Labuhan Batu	22.48	37.30	81.40	6.83	1.70	2.00	3.71
08. Asahan	23.39	28.20	67.56	4.46	1.62	2.07	3.69
09. Simalungun	28.49	14.14	48.41	1.95	2.19	2.57	4.76
10. Dairi	22.82	24.23	84.73	4.68	2.06	2.24	4.30
11. Karo	15.90	11.79	84.42	1.58	0.88	1.90	2.78
12. Deli Serdang	19.14	28.10	85.93	4.62	2.65	3.25	5.90
13. Langkat	22.22	24.51	73.20	3.99	1.51	1.24	2.75
71. Sibolga	1.24	71.94	50.77	0.45	1.51	0.91	2.43
72. Tanjung Balai	30.27	46.71	91.47	12.93	1.41	1.55	2.95
73. Pematang Siantar	11.48	27.68	63.10	2.00	3.11	1.38	4.48
74. Tebing Tinggi	28.26	47.26	89.53	11.96	2.00	1.34	3.33
75. Medan	19.33	27.69	28.07	1.50	3.96	1.71	5.67
76. Binjai	34.23	25.24	25.83	2.23	2.92	2.01	4.93
13. West Sumatera	33.64	34.42	45.02	5.21	2.40	2.50	4.90
01. Kepulauan Mentawai	44.72	31.61	92.21	13.03	0.67	0.85	1.52
02. Pesisir Selatan	26.88	29.76	51.34	4.11	1.42	1.84	3.26
03. Solok	29.60	28.38	70.90	5.96	1.59	2.73	4.31
04. Sawah Lunto/Sijunjung	21.12	33.88	78.42	5.61	0.87	2.04	2.91
05. Tanah Datar	19.20	19.68	42.78	1.62	1.68	2.90	4.58
06. Padang Pariaman	17.63	14.20	76.84	1.92	1.90	2.34	4.24
07. Agam	23.45	16.08	83.71	3.16	1.76	3.25	5.01
08. Limapuluh Koto	22.62	10.76	57.10	1.39	1.21	2.98	4.19
09. Pasaman	32.37	28.46	79.75	7.35	1.35	2.21	3.56
71. Padang	11.58	27.38	55.61	1.76	4.85	2.38	7.23
72. Solok	23.24	26.59	66.13	4.09	3.01	2.41	5.42
73. Sawah Lunto	22.58	27.11	88.73	5.43	1.94	1.99	3.93
74. Padang Panjang	29.82	21.58	68.31	4.39	3.40	2.87	6.27
75. Bukit Tinggi	15.62	28.57	85.07	3.80	3.40	2.70	6.10
76. Payakumbuh	35.48	14.53	84.33	4.35	1.58	2.63	4.22

Province District	2001				2002		
	Development expenditure as a % of government expenditure	Social services as a % of development expenditure	Expenditure for priority social services		Household expenditure % for		
			% of social expenditure	% of government expenditure	Education	Health	Health and Education
14. Riau	64.86	45.79	82.81	24.60	1.67	2.03	3.69
01. Kuantan Sengingi	61.95	19.97	75.43	9.33	1.39	1.42	2.81
02. Indragiri Hulu	53.59	27.72	88.99	13.22	2.38	1.20	3.58
03. Indragiri Hilir	55.81	38.21	73.55	15.69	0.87	0.82	1.70
04. Pelalawan	69.43	30.84	91.95	19.69	1.30	1.70	3.00
05. Siak	73.48	39.44	89.97	26.07	1.33	1.28	2.61
06. Kampar	55.36	44.19	89.49	21.89	1.64	2.54	4.18
07. Rokan Hulu	55.65	31.13	93.61	16.22	0.92	1.40	2.32
08. Bengkalis	77.24	29.17	80.09	18.05	1.71	1.60	3.31
09. Rokan Hilir	80.42	35.18	92.47	26.16	1.18	1.25	2.43
10. Kepulauan Riau	23.83	53.79	82.65	10.60	1.47	1.84	3.31
11. Karimun	37.70	28.39	52.42	5.61	2.15	1.35	3.50
12. Natuna	47.31	30.45	82.11	11.83	1.09	1.24	2.33
71. Pekanbaru	30.83	38.71	55.68	6.65	3.19	4.59	7.78
72. Batam	45.32	36.69	74.18	12.33	1.05	1.79	2.85
73. Dumai	58.69	36.05	22.58	4.78	2.98	2.31	5.28
15. Jambi	24.26	20.46	52.49	2.61	1.49	1.60	3.10
01. Kerinci	20.60	29.32	71.72	4.33	0.83	1.98	2.81
02. Merangin	21.01	28.53	36.74	2.20	1.50	1.12	2.62
03. Sarolangun	35.51	24.05	89.73	7.66	0.76	1.09	1.84
04. Batanghari	37.11	30.05	72.35	8.07	1.14	1.39	2.53
05. Muara Jambi	21.49	26.24	88.95	5.02	1.37	1.39	2.77
06. East Tanjung Jabung	36.63	23.36	72.51	6.20	0.86	1.30	2.16
07. West Tanjung Jabung	46.22	36.91	76.98	13.13	1.08	1.51	2.59
08. Tebo	32.79	28.22	84.98	7.86	1.39	1.79	3.19
09. Bungo	32.03	27.62	87.91	7.77	1.26	2.72	3.98
71. Jambi	8.07	37.59	62.47	1.90	2.84	1.49	4.33
16. South Sumatera	37.53	21.59	63.32	5.13	2.17	1.75	3.92
01. Ogan Komering Ulu	24.42	39.27	86.37	8.28	1.45	1.54	2.99
02. Ogan Komering Hilir	39.07	13.96	94.70	5.16	1.65	1.22	2.87
03. Muara Enim (Liot)	40.57	19.92	92.52	7.48	1.34	1.54	2.88
04. Lahat	27.07	21.51	88.00	5.12	1.57	1.81	3.38
05. Musi Rawas	30.38	21.05	89.34	5.71	1.50	1.34	2.84
06. Musi Banyuasin	53.84	22.10	68.04	8.10	1.58	1.82	3.40
71. Palembang	26.30	22.29	80.57	4.72	3.62	2.20	5.82
17. Bengkulu	20.82	16.86	62.06	2.18	1.97	1.80	3.77
01. South Bengkulu	33.46	22.30	72.49	5.41	1.52	1.62	3.14
02. Rejang Lebong	19.17	22.17	73.02	3.10	1.26	1.73	2.99
03. North Bengkulu	22.21	37.29	81.86	6.78	1.37	1.81	3.18
71. Bengkulu	7.79	70.53	69.91	3.84	3.91	2.02	5.93
18. Lampung	34.31	27.98	78.64	7.55	1.78	2.14	3.92
01. West Lampung	37.15	30.74	78.13	8.92	1.09	1.88	2.97
02. Tanggamus	3.38	26.04	10.05	0.09	2.07	2.19	4.26
03. South Lampung	4.76	1.94	29.94	0.03	1.55	1.60	3.15
04. East Lampung	32.00	24.26	83.49	6.48	1.58	1.88	3.46
05. Central Lampung	6.37	12.23	92.42	0.72	1.18	1.65	2.83
06. North Lampung	44.57	27.27	56.81	6.90	1.23	5.79	7.02
07. Way Kanan	42.35	25.85	74.21	8.12	1.67	2.09	3.76
08. Tulang Bawang	27.61	25.70	82.78	5.87	1.21	1.57	2.77
71. Bandar Lampung	18.53	36.32	87.88	5.91	3.05	2.10	5.15
72. Metro	44.35	26.19	66.70	7.75	3.73	1.92	5.65

Province District	2001				2002		
	Development expenditure as a % of government expenditure	Social services as a % of development expenditure	Expenditure for priority social services		Household expenditure % for		
			% of social expenditure	% of government expenditure	Education	Health	Health and Education
19. Bangka Belitung	-	-	-	-	1.31	1.93	3.24
01. Bangka	32.45	17.08	87.86	4.87	1.02	1.37	2.39
02. Belitung	5.90	41.84	94.67	2.34	1.02	1.56	2.59
71. Pangkal Pinang	18.11	22.27	89.06	3.59	2.67	4.28	6.95
31. DKI Jakarta	32.01	48.02	60.41	9.29	3.19	2.04	5.23
71. South Jakarta					3.21	1.71	4.93
72. East Jakarta					3.40	2.52	5.92
73. Central Jakarta					2.46	2.48	4.94
74. West Jakarta					3.39	1.99	5.38
75. North Jakarta					3.14	1.55	4.69
32. West Java	30.85	21.32	73.80	4.85	2.33	1.94	4.27
01. Bogor	26.67	43.04	79.71	9.15	1.73	1.46	3.19
02. Sukabumi	30.68	34.95	85.04	9.12	1.23	1.65	2.88
03. Cianjur	24.21	39.35	73.31	6.99	0.96	1.81	2.77
04. Bandung	24.21	41.26	65.61	6.55	2.14	1.72	3.86
05. Garut	18.60	39.55	74.61	5.49	1.58	2.41	3.99
06. Tasik Malaya	18.15	39.21	78.73	5.60	1.54	2.20	3.74
07. Ciamis	18.41	34.55	65.40	4.16	1.09	2.56	3.65
08. Kuningan	17.47	42.11	84.29	6.20	1.57	2.88	4.45
09. Cirebon	23.19	44.10	84.36	8.63	1.62	1.80	3.42
10. Majalengka	13.34	31.02	83.88	3.47	1.50	2.58	4.07
11. Sumedang	12.43	31.87	79.46	3.15	3.03	3.01	6.03
12. Indramayu	19.36	30.54	66.09	3.91	1.23	2.83	4.06
13. Subang	23.11	32.12	79.86	5.93	1.18	1.71	2.89
14. Purwakarta	19.72	33.94	69.48	4.65	1.16	1.50	2.67
15. Karawang	25.88	41.27	75.70	8.09	1.30	1.61	2.91
16. Bekasi	28.95	24.40	70.69	4.99	2.10	1.31	3.41
71. Bogor	22.21	41.15	62.37	5.70	4.34	1.45	5.79
72. Sukabumi	18.54	36.72	75.81	5.16	3.06	2.18	5.23
73. Bandung	25.97	51.64	34.08	4.57	5.20	2.21	7.41
74. Cirebon	20.09	52.63	59.33	6.27	2.71	2.96	5.67
75. Bekasi	41.75	36.19	67.76	10.24	3.88	1.24	5.12
76. Depok	43.69	15.55	53.70	3.65	3.32	2.31	5.63
33. Central Java	24.61	24.65	63.55	3.86	2.55	2.90	5.45
01. Cilacap	19.80	25.82	73.58	3.76	2.10	3.06	5.16
02. Banyumas	16.13	31.97	67.30	3.47	2.33	2.53	4.85
03. Purbalingga	26.37	36.27	82.17	7.86	1.75	3.05	4.80
04. Banjarnegara	17.44	19.99	72.59	2.53	1.76	1.92	3.68
05. Kebumen	12.72	26.70	88.69	3.01	2.22	2.42	4.63
06. Purworejo	15.33	37.74	74.82	4.33	3.86	2.51	6.37
07. Wonosobo	18.49	18.51	78.29	2.68	1.34	2.65	3.99
08. Magelang	13.73	20.11	45.69	1.26	3.08	2.85	5.93
09. Boyolali	12.69	26.41	82.44	2.76	2.65	2.94	5.58
10. Klaten	8.60	24.32	76.19	1.59	3.28	4.35	7.63
11. Sukoharjo	16.14	32.10	51.05	2.65	3.54	3.44	6.97
12. Wonogiri	14.19	27.66	73.07	2.87	2.09	3.57	5.66
13. Karanganyar	14.68	11.39	84.51	1.41	2.70	4.50	7.21
14. Sragen	17.60	16.56	71.91	2.10	2.33	3.98	6.32
15. Grobogan	5.96	12.47	76.92	0.57	1.55	3.12	4.67
16. Blora	30.33	22.92	70.44	4.90	1.73	2.37	4.10
17. Rembang	28.29	28.42	78.23	6.29	1.33	2.45	3.78
18. Pati	16.93	25.57	68.01	2.94	2.03	2.55	4.58
19. Kudus	14.97	28.91	88.18	3.82	2.47	2.63	5.10

Province District	2001				2002		
	Development expenditure as a % of government expenditure	Social services as a % of development expenditure	Expenditure for priority social services		Household expenditure % for		
			% of social expenditure	% of government expenditure	Education	Health	Health and Education
20. Jepara	35.52	34.80	71.63	8.85	1.57	2.65	4.21
21. Demak	4.83	44.66	98.58	2.12	2.23	2.67	4.90
22. Semarang	23.57	30.94	81.23	5.92	2.25	2.79	5.03
23. Temanggung	30.78	31.52	27.27	2.65	1.65	3.05	4.71
24. Kendal	37.79	45.59	62.21	10.72	2.83	3.13	5.96
25. Batang	32.30	33.93	65.28	7.15	2.01	2.22	4.23
26. Pekalongan	21.05	27.80	78.27	4.58	1.58	1.98	3.56
27. Pemalang	24.24	30.32	88.33	6.49	1.31	2.17	3.47
28. Tegal	29.98	30.01	81.16	7.30	1.91	2.62	4.53
29. Brebes	32.73	24.26	54.91	4.36	1.45	2.40	3.85
71. Magelang	18.57	29.16	60.54	3.28	4.21	3.88	8.09
72. Surakarta	9.32	11.14	24.54	0.25	3.73	4.15	7.88
73. Salatiga	15.15	21.49	84.29	2.75	7.31	1.95	9.26
74. Semarang	19.79	43.14	82.38	7.03	5.49	2.97	8.45
75. Pekalongan	28.40	36.14	66.39	6.81	2.94	2.20	5.14
76. Tegal	32.88	46.28	42.69	6.50	2.12	2.97	5.08
34. D. I. Yogyakarta	16.49	26.83	59.77	2.65	6.56	2.55	9.11
01. Kulon Progo	27.51	28.24	93.72	7.28	2.14	3.34	5.49
02. Bantul	12.12	31.15	89.09	3.36	3.97	2.73	6.70
03. Gunung Kidul	19.99	41.25	71.73	5.91	1.53	2.65	4.17
04. Sleman	13.02	34.90	77.73	3.53	7.18	2.14	9.32
71. Yogyakarta	8.55	31.15	75.10	2.00	11.52	2.93	14.45
35. East Java	62.92	21.60	68.34	9.29	2.42	2.68	5.10
01. Pacitan	31.65	22.20	72.44	5.09	1.79	2.81	4.60
02. Ponorogo	25.95	26.13	77.09	5.23	2.02	2.79	4.81
03. Trenggalek	29.35	30.40	81.77	7.30	1.19	2.49	3.68
04. Tulungagung	16.09	11.51	70.27	1.30	1.66	3.54	5.20
05. Blitar	15.97	19.94	73.13	2.33	1.74	4.93	6.67
06. Kediri	16.80	23.05	43.37	1.68	1.66	2.58	4.23
07. Malang	19.15	29.83	49.53	2.83	2.37	3.49	5.86
08. Lumajang	22.20	22.77	84.37	4.26	1.42	2.00	3.43
09. Jember	21.87	22.66	67.35	3.34	1.95	2.08	4.02
10. Banyuwangi	17.85	29.87	79.64	4.25	1.33	2.87	4.20
11. Bondowoso	23.63	30.95	90.55	6.62	0.82	1.92	2.74
12. Situbondo	23.57	23.65	77.68	4.33	0.98	2.83	3.82
13. Probolinggo	34.58	35.43	76.46	9.37	1.19	2.13	3.32
14. Pasuruan	28.46	36.97	75.68	7.96	1.58	1.39	2.96
15. Sidoarjo	20.56	29.59	75.77	4.61	2.43	2.47	4.90
16. Mojokerto	31.73	36.78	82.41	9.62	1.78	3.65	5.43
17. Jombang	25.03	20.74	75.39	3.91	2.52	2.89	5.41
18. Nganjuk	16.48	37.02	92.56	5.65	1.43	3.12	4.55
19. Madiun	21.63	21.39	84.69	3.92	2.49	2.41	4.89
20. Magetan	18.77	17.91	63.70	2.14	1.98	3.83	5.81
21. Ngawi	21.20	17.72	71.00	2.67	1.85	2.76	4.60
22. Bojonegoro	30.22	45.14	88.95	12.13	1.46	2.07	3.54
23. Tuban	24.64	23.44	84.22	4.86	1.24	2.42	3.66
24. Lamongan	21.95	27.97	77.76	4.77	2.01	3.11	5.12
25. Gresik	18.61	31.86	64.04	3.80	2.51	1.67	4.18
26. Bangkalan	23.16	34.60	71.18	5.70	1.02	1.49	2.51
27. Sampang	28.77	36.42	77.48	8.12	0.72	1.77	2.49
28. Pamekasan	30.30	20.73	64.34	4.04	1.73	2.45	4.17
29. Sumenep	30.44	33.54	81.54	8.32	0.65	2.00	2.65
71. Kediri	20.95	30.75	89.06	5.74	3.64	3.08	6.73
72. Blitar	18.94	20.22	62.56	2.40	3.15	3.94	7.09
73. Malang	13.00	38.52	75.25	3.77	7.62	2.68	10.30
74. Probolinggo	36.47	48.82	64.09	11.41	1.78	2.39	4.17
75. Pasuruan	45.76	41.79	80.32	15.36	2.85	4.05	6.89
76. Mojokerto	30.30	22.91	80.24	5.57	3.86	3.84	7.70
77. Madiun	22.39	18.95	62.50	2.65	2.66	4.24	6.90
78. Surabaya	13.00	41.84	45.67	2.48	4.60	2.72	7.32

Province District	2001				2002		
	Development expenditure as a % of government expenditure	Social services as a % of development expenditure	Expenditure for priority social services		Household expenditure % for		
			% of social expenditure	% of government expenditure	Education	Health	Health and Education
36. Banten	62.43	6.26	58.32	2.28	2.37	1.97	4.35
01. Pandeglang	29.68	42.82	89.08	11.32	0.96	1.35	2.31
02. Lebak	26.60	39.16	72.81	7.58	0.93	0.68	1.61
03. Tangerang	35.71	29.46	80.73	8.49	2.59	2.07	4.66
04. Serang	21.20	32.94	70.98	4.96	1.27	2.32	3.59
71. Tangerang	42.26	41.08	37.41	6.50	3.64	2.29	5.93
72. Cilegon	28.43	31.42	74.18	6.63	2.18	1.07	3.25
51. Bali	34.40	28.78	30.61	3.03	1.89	2.80	4.69
01. Jembrana	10.61	14.55	65.56	1.01	0.69	2.30	2.99
02. Tabanan	24.15	24.25	77.52	4.54	1.59	2.73	4.32
03. Badung	47.66	26.54	66.57	8.42	2.10	2.16	4.27
04. Gianyar	37.46	18.17	26.75	1.82	1.98	2.16	4.14
05. Klungkung	32.61	27.64	58.13	5.24	1.47	1.78	3.25
06. Bangli	18.88	37.84	42.95	3.07	1.43	2.81	4.24
07. Karangasem	28.02	27.47	72.53	5.58	1.33	1.99	3.32
08. Buleleng	18.27	34.85	60.02	3.82	1.57	2.53	4.10
71. Denpasar	30.93	28.99	42.53	3.81	2.51	3.77	6.28
52. West Nusa Tenggara	30.14	28.67	57.24	4.95	1.10	1.61	2.71
01. West Lombok	26.33	25.21	78.49	5.21	0.89	1.61	2.50
02. Central Lombok	29.44	39.01	80.46	9.24	0.78	1.47	2.25
03. East Lombok	34.34	34.47	80.27	9.50	0.81	1.45	2.27
04. Sumbawa	44.67	41.51	81.94	15.19	0.86	1.54	2.40
05. Dompu	30.39	27.00	82.04	6.73	0.79	1.70	2.48
06. Bima	39.05	26.31	84.59	8.69	1.25	1.62	2.87
71. Mataram	33.76	40.58	63.41	8.69	3.02	2.33	5.35
53. East Nusa Tenggara	26.63	39.23	77.23	8.07	1.41	1.53	2.93
01. West Sumba	43.01	30.89	86.84	11.54	0.64	2.08	2.72
02. East Sumba	40.26	25.82	71.67	7.45	0.89	1.68	2.57
03. Kupang	29.63	30.77	42.45	3.87	0.77	0.94	1.71
04. Southern Central Timor	40.87	27.17	83.13	9.23	0.92	0.49	1.41
05. Northern Central Timor	45.78	39.82	90.00	16.41	1.13	1.03	2.16
06. Belu	25.93	28.61	89.05	6.61	1.11	1.60	2.71
07. Alor	30.30	41.23	65.64	8.20	1.62	1.09	2.71
08. Lembata	42.35	36.95	78.26	12.25	0.75	2.00	2.75
09. East Flores	32.99	30.91	77.63	7.92	1.05	1.55	2.60
10. Sikka	33.77	39.88	69.40	9.35	1.48	3.00	4.48
11. Ende	2.93	41.57	100.00	1.22	1.50	1.48	2.98
12. Ngada	38.37	42.21	86.63	14.03	1.27	2.46	3.73
13. Manggarai	39.48	42.85	94.58	16.00	1.03	1.57	2.59
71. Kupang	22.46	27.98	56.21	3.53	3.85	1.36	5.21
61. West Kalimantan	31.22	20.15	70.15	4.41	1.50	1.82	3.33
01. Sambas	33.49	25.49	81.30	6.94	1.52	1.73	3.25
02. Bengkayang	19.37	37.74	77.51	5.67	1.33	1.57	2.90
03. Landak	32.77	42.22	71.92	9.95	1.56	1.70	3.26
04. Pontianak	20.66	48.10	79.82	7.93	1.13	1.22	2.35
05. Sanggau	34.73	29.47	83.26	8.52	0.68	1.37	2.05
06. Ketapang	32.08	33.04	70.38	7.46	0.91	1.23	2.14
07. Sintang	34.56	29.88	76.50	7.90	1.22	1.44	2.66
08. Kapuas Hulu	47.98	23.71	60.68	6.90	0.53	1.34	1.87
71. Pontianak	27.60	36.40	45.42	4.56	3.00	3.42	6.42

Province District	2001				2002		
	Development expenditure as a % of government expenditure	Social services as a % of development expenditure	Expenditure for priority social services		Household expenditure % for		
			% of social expenditure	% of government expenditure	Education	Health	Health and Education
62. Central Kalimantan	52.67	13.16	49.81	3.45	1.08	1.48	2.56
01. West Kotawaringin	50.83	27.81	90.32	12.77	1.14	1.15	2.29
02. East Kotawaringin	40.16	34.98	71.92	10.10	0.67	1.78	2.45
03. Kapuas	32.97	32.57	88.42	9.50	0.94	1.59	2.53
04. South Barito	27.89	37.67	62.87	6.60	0.92	1.77	2.69
05. North Barito	46.56	25.61	73.23	8.73	0.91	0.73	1.65
71. Palangka Raya	14.09	36.49	54.83	2.82	2.76	1.32	4.08
63. South Kalimantan	32.61	23.24	69.46	5.27	1.17	1.49	2.66
01. Tanah Laut	31.18	24.34	82.62	6.27	0.80	1.66	2.46
02. Kota Baru	37.43	31.16	85.20	9.94	0.51	1.38	1.89
03. Banjar	29.43	23.82	56.76	3.98	1.31	1.39	2.70
04. Barito Kuala	35.77	19.07	84.01	5.73	0.77	1.45	2.22
05. Tapin	29.98	41.89	32.09	4.03	1.15	1.74	2.89
06. South Hulu Sungai	23.20	38.61	69.18	6.20	0.59	1.70	2.29
07. Central Hulu Sungai	28.09	20.93	90.42	5.32	0.81	1.41	2.21
08. North Hulu Sungai	31.31	25.05	71.01	5.57	0.59	1.12	1.71
09. Tabalong	32.17	19.16	74.14	4.57	0.71	1.19	1.90
71. Banjarmasin	15.53	34.87	79.11	4.28	1.94	1.51	3.44
72. Banjar Baru	36.49	22.81	53.87	4.48	2.92	2.02	4.95
64. East Kalimantan	42.64	20.97	85.74	7.67	2.02	1.85	3.87
01. Pasir	57.42	24.48	78.27	11.00	1.77	2.00	3.77
02. West Kutai	60.41	17.21	69.77	7.25	0.96	1.36	2.33
03. Kutai	60.09	12.93	64.70	5.02	1.07	2.00	3.07
04. East Kutai	58.51	17.11	42.84	4.29	0.42	1.05	1.47
05. Berau	64.51	32.43	65.65	13.74	0.70	2.06	2.76
06. Malinau	-	-	-	-	1.01	0.92	1.93
07. Bulongan	62.60	30.47	75.19	14.34	0.90	1.78	2.69
08. Nunukan	74.85	18.62	62.68	8.73	0.70	1.57	2.26
71. Balikpapan	31.21	46.86	44.79	6.55	2.81	2.13	4.94
72. Samarinda	43.53	40.53	28.93	5.10	3.01	2.08	5.10
73. Tarakan	34.02	27.16	45.66	4.22	2.36	1.59	3.95
74. Bontang	63.51	34.77	54.05	11.93	2.64	0.96	3.60
71. North Sulawesi	8.18	24.34	34.69	0.69	1.77	2.11	3.87
01. Bolaang Mongondow	27.47	23.49	78.21	5.05	1.42	2.28	3.70
02. Minahasa	21.76	23.92	83.93	4.37	1.29	2.34	3.63
03. Sangihe Talaud	20.33	26.12	61.38	3.26	1.12	2.09	3.21
71. Manado	23.05	39.79	39.30	3.61	2.96	1.64	4.60
72. Bitung	30.59	29.72	21.44	1.95	1.46	2.21	3.67
72. Central Sulawesi	23.78	15.12	46.22	1.66	1.12	1.79	2.91
01. Banggai Kepulauan	52.38	36.23	85.89	16.30	0.62	1.97	2.59
02. Banggai	35.23	30.08	84.02	8.90	0.82	1.85	2.67
03. Morowali	41.68	34.92	60.86	8.86	0.70	1.13	1.83
04. Poso	40.30	40.90	77.03	12.70	0.80	1.99	2.79
05. Donggala	35.25	25.81	87.08	7.92	0.76	1.43	2.18
06. Toli-Toli	43.53	33.21	92.48	13.37	0.75	2.20	2.95
07. Buol	24.12	31.87	86.19	6.63	1.04	1.61	2.64
71. Palu	20.43	40.28	81.86	6.73	2.85	2.25	5.10

Province District	2001				2002		
	Development expenditure as a % of government expenditure	Social services as a % of development expenditure	Expenditure for priority social services		Household expenditure % for		
			% of social expenditure	% of government expenditure	Education	Health	Health and Education
73. South Sulawesi	36.01	20.01	58.40	4.21	2.01	1.64	3.64
01. Selayar	34.29	14.18	83.29	4.05	0.64	0.75	1.39
02. Bulukumba	16.60	30.22	68.49	3.44	0.96	1.14	2.09
03. Bantaeng	39.19	35.58	80.92	11.28	0.72	1.85	2.58
04. Jeneponto	23.05	23.91	75.01	4.13	0.71	1.74	2.45
05. Takalar	27.78	38.58	50.83	5.45	0.81	1.64	2.45
06. Gowa	27.38	27.34	79.37	5.94	1.62	1.35	2.96
07. Sinjai	19.35	17.84	71.82	2.48	0.65	1.31	1.96
08. Maros	25.81	54.18	50.04	7.00	1.19	1.86	3.06
09. Pangkajene Kepulauan	26.21	27.67	67.72	4.91	0.63	1.25	1.88
10. Barru	34.28	24.90	80.78	6.90	1.06	1.82	2.88
11. Bone	12.22	46.42	79.82	4.53	0.74	1.55	2.29
12. Soppeng	11.47	21.22	75.20	1.83	0.83	0.98	1.81
13. Wajo	18.93	17.64	58.60	1.96	0.95	0.97	1.93
14. Sidenreng Rappang	18.50	24.84	81.11	3.73	1.04	2.61	3.65
15. Pinrang	28.11	24.67	75.71	5.25	1.15	2.69	3.84
16. Enrekang	23.55	27.23	73.59	4.72	1.10	1.13	2.23
17. Luwu	26.60	28.39	72.71	5.49	1.39	1.64	3.02
18. Tana Toraja	23.04	19.70	66.36	3.01	1.76	1.34	3.10
19. Polewali Mamasa	17.36	28.23	61.33	3.00	1.00	0.92	1.92
20. Majene	27.41	56.12	88.50	13.61	0.68	1.89	2.57
21. Mamuju	39.90	28.57	78.53	8.95	0.63	1.40	2.03
22. North Luwu	40.39	23.00	92.92	8.63	1.22	1.98	3.20
71. Ujung Pandang	20.06	21.50	63.43	2.74	5.12	1.71	6.83
72. Pare Pare	22.75	52.39	68.02	8.11	1.53	2.37	3.90
74. South East Sulawesi	24.34	21.94	42.96	2.29	1.28	1.35	2.63
01. Buton	21.27	40.86	87.14	7.57	1.18	1.30	2.49
02. Muna	36.49	29.89	67.82	7.40	0.80	1.90	2.70
03. Kendari	12.84	7.12	25.97	0.24	0.62	1.31	1.93
04. Kolaka	15.78	12.76	29.53	0.59	0.64	1.00	1.63
71. Kendari	15.53	36.80	95.34	5.45	3.32	1.46	4.78
75. Gorontalo	48.19	20.30	74.45	7.28	1.02	1.62	2.63
01. Boalemo	56.48	20.66	78.72	9.19	0.99	1.62	2.61
02. Gorontalo	18.63	39.33	62.90	4.61	0.85	1.53	2.39
71. Gorontalo	29.57	29.10	73.40	6.32	1.43	1.81	3.24
81. Maluku	33.62	25.86	62.11	5.40	1.22	0.86	2.08
01. West South-East Maluku	36.02	22.55	42.65	3.46	0.88	0.95	1.82
02. South-East Maluku	20.18	39.38	91.81	7.30	0.96	1.02	1.98
03. Central Maluku	5.53	59.07	95.12	3.11	1.20	0.80	2.00
04. Buru	30.16	52.68	61.41	9.76	0.73	0.53	1.25
71. Ambon	11.47	48.16	97.22	5.37	2.01	0.99	3.00
82. North Maluku	61.06	66.25	94.30	38.15	1.68	1.18	2.86
01. North Maluku	26.50	40.22	85.32	9.09	1.08	1.21	2.29
02. Central Halmahera	40.48	46.38	92.52	17.37	0.89	0.82	1.71
71. Ternate	47.76	40.03	90.65	17.33	2.58	1.39	3.96

Province District	2001				2002		
	Development expenditure as a % of government expenditure	Social services as a % of development expenditure	Expenditure for priority social services		Household expenditure % for		
			% of social expenditure	% of government expenditure	Education	Health	Health and Education
91. Papua	22.10	24.60	60.65	3.30	1.26	1.02	2.28
01. Merauke	49.76	44.54	77.77	17.24	0.63	1.08	1.71
02. Jayawijaya	48.09	49.30	81.13	19.23	1.49	0.94	2.44
03. Jayapura	12.80	17.22	42.50	0.94	1.39	0.87	2.25
04. Nabire	42.48	30.62	45.35	5.90	0.88	0.53	1.41
05. Paniai	44.08	53.33	38.63	9.08	0.84	0.92	1.75
06. Puncak Jaya	22.89	53.33	51.89	6.33	1.45	0.89	2.34
07. Fak Fak	22.79	14.92	67.74	2.30	1.22	0.92	2.14
08. Mimika	43.28	27.32	73.44	8.69	0.63	1.00	1.62
09. Sorong	29.37	31.26	87.57	8.04	1.22	1.10	2.31
10. Manokwari	62.63	34.08	77.56	16.55	0.46	0.34	0.80
11. Yapen Waropen	50.14	40.50	69.94	14.20	0.09	0.32	0.41
12. Biak Numfor	49.40	19.17	95.32	9.03	1.51	1.62	3.13
71. Jayapura	43.65	25.31	65.30	7.22	2.35	1.67	4.02
72. Sorong	48.51	46.68	44.59	10.10	2.33	0.98	3.31
Indonesia	21.12	28.37	71.71	4.30	2.40	2.20	4.60

Notes:

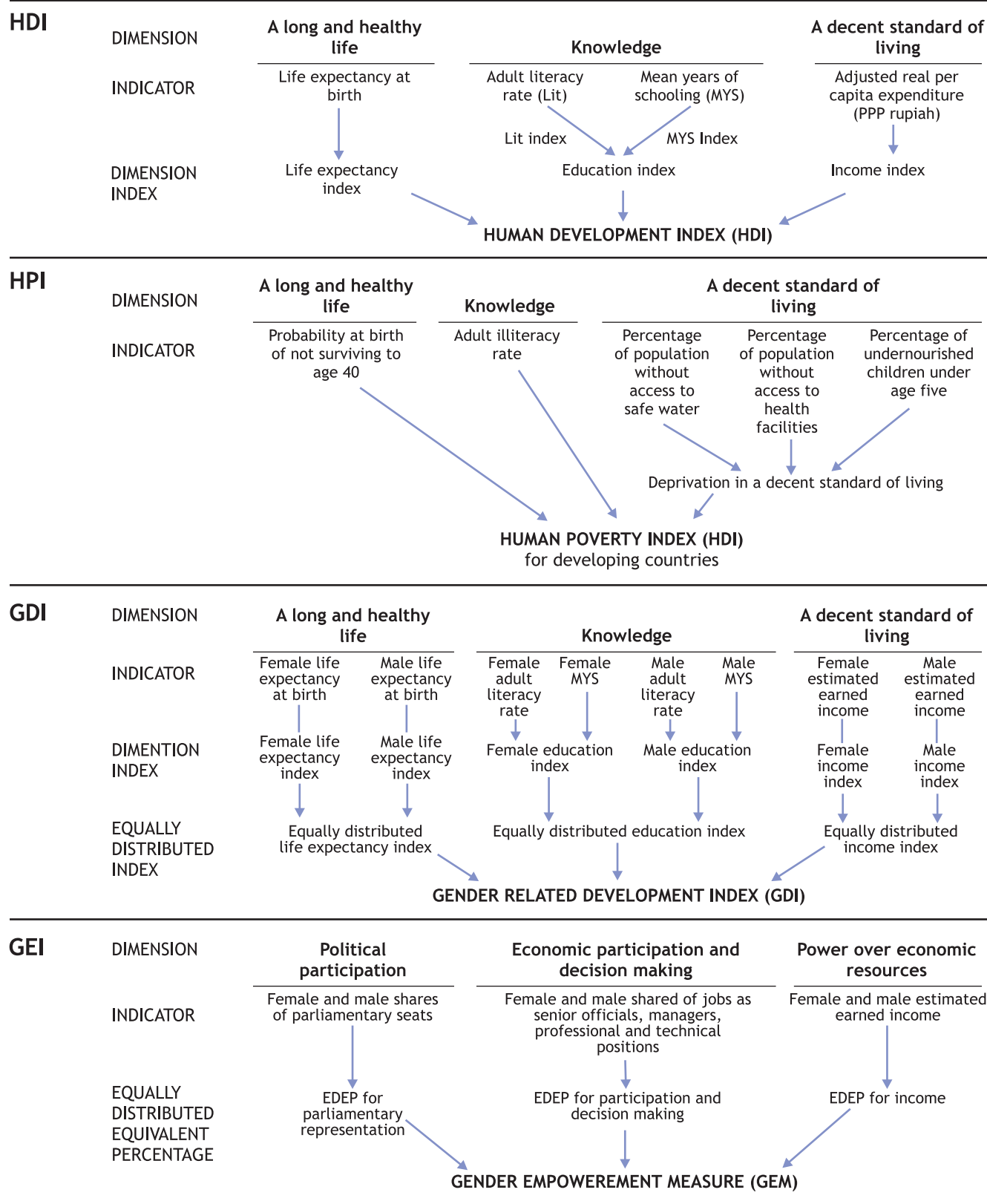
1. Household expenditure is based on Susenas 2002
2. Nangroe Aceh Darussalam, Maluku, North Maluku and Papua use 2003 data.
3. The number before each province or district is the official area code. District refers to both regency (kabupaten) and city (kota). Where two districts have the same name, the one with a code number above 70 is a city.

Source: BPS special tabulation

Technical Notes

Calculating the Human Development Indices

The diagram here offers an overview of how the four human development indices used in the Indonesia Human Development Report are constructed, highlighting both their similarities and their differences. A detailed explanation of the computation is presented in the following pages.



Computing the indices

The Human Development Index (HDI)

The HDI is based on three components: longevity, as measured by life expectancy at birth; educational attainment, as measured by the combination of adult literacy rate (two-thirds weight) and mean years of schooling (one-third weight); and standard of living, as measured by adjusted per capita expenditure (PPP Rupiah).

The index is defined as the simple average of the indices of those three components:

$$\text{HDI} = 1/3 (\text{Index } X_1 + \text{Index } X_2 + \text{Index } X_3)$$

Where X_1 , X_2 and X_3 are longevity, educational attainment and standard of living respectively.

For any component of the HDI, individual index can be computed according to the general formula:

$$\text{Index } X_{(i,j)} = (X_{(i,j)} - X_{(i-\min)}) / (X_{(i-\max)} - X_{(i-\min)})$$

Where :

$X_{(i,j)}$: Indicator i th for region j

$X_{(i-\min)}$: Minimum value of X_i

$X_{(i-\max)}$: Maximum value of X_i

Longevity

Longevity is measured by using the indicator of life expectancy at birth (e_0). The e_0 presented in this report is based on the extrapolation of the e_0 figure based on end-1996 and end-1999 situation as the correspondence of the infant mortality rate (IMR) for the same period. For this publication, the estimation of IMR at provincial level is calculated based on data series from 1971 census, 1980 census, 1990 census, and the pooled data of 1995 survey between census (SUPAS) and 1996 socio-economic survey (SUSENAS). The numbers resulted from 2000 census also used to extrapolate e_0 and IMR of the year 2002. The calculation method follows the indirect technique based on two basic data - i.e. the average number of live births and the average number of children still living - reported from each five-year class of mother ages between 15 - 49 years old. By applying this technique, there will be seven estimation points for each time reference from each data source. As a result there are 28 IMR estimations for all time references from which the estimation of IMR is calculated. It is done after the

Table 1

Maximum and minimum value of each HDI indicator

HDI Component	Maximum Value	Minimum Value	Notes
Life Expectancy	85	25	UNDP Standard
Literacy Rate	100	0	UNDP Standard
Mean Years of Schooling	15	0	UNDP uses combined gross enrolment ratio
Purchasing Power	737,720 ^{a)}	300,000 (1996) 360,000 (1999) ^{b)}	UNDP uses adjusted real per capita GNP

Notes:

a) Projection of the highest purchasing power for Jakarta in 2018 (the end of the second long term development period) after adjusted with Atkinson formula. This projection is based on the assumption of 6.5 percent growth in purchasing power during the period of 1993-2018.

b) Equal to two times the poverty line of the province with the lowest per capita consumption in 1990 (rural area of South Sulawesi). For 1999, the minimum value was adjusted to Rp. 360,000. This adjustment is necessary, as the economic crisis has drastically reduced the purchasing power of the people. It is reflected by the increase in poverty level and the decrease in the real wages. The additional Rp. 60,000 is based on the difference between the "old poverty line" and the "new poverty line" that is amounted to around Rp. 5,000 per month (= Rp. 60,000 per year).

omission of any unreliable figures reported by the eldest and the youngest maternal groups.

The estimation of IMR at regency/city level is based on the pooled data from SUPAS 1995 and SUSENAS 1996. This pooled data is considered to be a reliable data source because it covers around 416,000 households. However the indirect technique used in this estimation produces the estimate of four years before the survey time. To calculate the estimate points for 1999, the estimate figure based on the pooled SUPAS 1995 and SUSENAS 1996 data is projected after taking into account the provincial trend of the respected region and the inter regencies/cities variation within each respected province. Meanwhile, for the year 2002, the results of 2000 census are used at the region/city level.

Educational attainment

The component of educational attainment in this publication is measured by using two indicators – literacy rate and mean years of schooling. The literacy rate is defined as the proportion of population aged 15 years and over who are able to read and write in Latin script or in other script as a percentage of this age group. This indicator is given a weight of two-thirds. Another one-third weight is given to the indicator of mean years of schooling that is defined as the average years of formal schooling attended among the population aged 15 years and over. This indicator is calculated based on the variables of the current or achieved grade and the attainment of education level in the SUSENAS core questionnaire. Table 2 presents the conversion factor of the year of schooling for each level of education being completed. For someone who has not completed a certain level of education or drop out from school, the year of schooling (YS) is calculated using the following formula:

$$YS = \text{Conversion years} + \text{the current/achieved grade} - 1$$

For example, someone who drops out from the 2nd year of Senior High School:

$$YS = 9 + 2 - 1 = 10 \text{ (years)}$$

Table 2

The conversion years for the highest level of education being completed

Level of education completed	Conversion factor
1. Never attend school	0
2. Primary School	6
3. Junior High School	9
4. Senior High School	12
5. Diploma I	13
6. Diploma II	14
7. Academy/Diploma III	15
8. Diploma IV/Sarjana	16
9. Master (S2)	18
10. Ph D (S3)	21

Standard of living

This report is using the adjusted real per capita expenditure as the proxy for standard of living. In order to ensure inter-regional and time series comparability, the following procedure is applied:

1. Calculating the annual per capita expenditure from SUSENAS module data [=Y];
2. Mark up the Y with a factor of 20% [=Y₁], as various

studies suggested that the SUSENAS figure underestimates by about 20%;

3. Calculating the real Y₁ by deflating Y₁ with the consumer price index (CPI) [=Y₂];
4. Calculating the Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) for each region as the relative price of a certain bundle of commodities, with the prices in South Jakarta as the standard;
5. Dividing Y₂ with PPP to obtained a standardized Rupiah value [=Y₃];
6. Discounting the Y₃ using the Atkinson formula to get the purchasing power estimate [=Y₄]. This step is applied to accommodate the rule of decreasing marginal utility.

Consumer Price Index

In Indonesia, the CPI figure is available only for 54 cities. The calculation of purchasing power at regency/city level is using the CPI of the respected regency/city where the figure is available. For other than the 54 cities where the CPI data is available, the provincial CPI - i.e. the average of CPIs figure available in each province - is used.

Purchasing Power Parity

The calculation of PPP basically applies the same method used by the International Comparison Project in standardizing GDP for international comparison. The calculation is based on prices and quantities of selected commodities basket (27 items) available in SUSENAS consumption module. The prices in South Jakarta are used as the basic price. The formula for PPP calculation is:

$$PPP = \frac{\sum_j E_{(i,j)}}{\sum_j P_{(9,j)} Q_{(i,j)}}$$

Where:

E_(i,j): expenditure for commodity j in the province i

P_(9,j): the price of commodity j in South Jakarta

Q_(i,j): volume of commodity j (unit) consumed in the province i

The housing unit is calculated based on the housing quality index that consists of seven housing quality components in SUSENAS module. The score of each component is:

- 1) Floor: ceramic, marble, or granite =1, others = 0
- 2) Per capita floor width > 10 m² = 1, others= 0
- 3) Wall: cemented=1, others= 0
- 4) Roof: wood/single, cemented =1, others = 0
- 5) Lighting facility: electric=1, others= 0
- 6) Drinking water facility: piping=1, others= 0
- 7) Sanitation: private ownership=1, others= 0
- 8) Initial score for every house=1

Table 3
List of the bundle of commodities
used in the calculation of PPP

Commodity	Unit	Proportion from total consumption (%)
1. Local rice	Kg	7.25
2. Flour	Kg	0.10
3. Cassava	Kg	0.22
4. Tuna/cakalang	Kg	0.50
5. Anchovy	Ounce	0.32
6. Beef	Kg	0.78
7. Chicken	Kg	0.65
8. Egg	piece	1.48
9. Sweetened Milk	397 grams	0.48
10. Spinach	Kg	0.30
11. Snake Bean	Kg	0.32
12. Peanut	Kg	0.22
13. Tempe(Soybean cake)	Kg	0.79
14. Orange	Kg	0.39
15. Papaya	Kg	0.18
16. Coconut	piece	0.56
17. Sugar	Ons	1.61
18. Coffee	Ons	0.60
19. Salt	Ons	0.15
20. Pepper	Ons	0.13
21. Instant Noodle	80 grams	0.79
22. Clove Cigarette	10 pieces	2.86
23. Electricity	Kwh	2.06
24. Drinking water	M ³	0.46
25. Gasoline	Liter	1.02
26. Gasoline	Liter	1.74
27. Housing Rent	Unit	11.56
Total		37.52

The housing quality index is the sum of all scores with a range of 1 to 8. The quality of house consumed by a household is equal to the housing quality index divided by 8. For example, if a house has a housing quality index of 6, then the quality of house consumed by the household is 6/8 or 0,75 unit.

Atkinson Formula

The Atkinson formula used to discounted the Y3 can be defined as:

$$\begin{aligned}
 C(I)^* &= C_{(i)} && \text{if } C_{(i)} < Z \\
 &= Z + 2(C_{(i)} - Z)^{(1/2)} && \text{if } Z < C_{(i)} < 2Z \\
 &= Z + 2(Z)^{(1/2)} + 3(C_{(i)} - 2Z)^{(1/3)} && \text{if } 2Z < C_{(i)} < 3Z \\
 &= Z + 2(Z)^{(1/2)} + 3(Z)^{(1/3)} + 4(C_{(i)} - 3Z)^{(1/4)} && \text{if } 3Z < C_{(i)} < 4Z
 \end{aligned}$$

where:

$C_{(i)}$: The PPP adjusted per capita real expenditure
 Z : threshold level of expenditure that is arbitrarily defined at Rp. 549,500 per capita per year or Rp. 1,500 per capita per day.

Calculating the HDI

This illustration of the calculation of HDI uses data for Aceh Province in 1999

Life expectancy	67.6
Adult literacy rate (%)	93.1
Mean years of schooling	7.2
Adjusted real per capita expenditure (Thousand Rupiah)	562.8

Life expectancy index

$$(67.6 - 25) / (85 - 25) = 0.71 = 71\%$$

Adult literacy index

$$(93.1 - 0) / (100 - 0) = 0.93 = 93\%$$

Mean years of schooling index

$$(7.2 - 0) / (15 - 0) = 0.48 = 48\%$$

Educational attainment index

$$(2/3 \times 93) + (1/3 \times 48) = 0.78 = 78\%$$

Income index

$$(562.8 - 360) / (732.72 - 300) = 0.469 = 47\%$$

Human development index

$$HDI = (71 + 78 + 47) / 3 = 65.3$$

Reduction Shortfall

The differences on the rate of change of any HDI score during a certain period can be measured by the annual rate of reduction in shortfall. This shortfall value measures the achievement ratio in terms of the gap between the 'achieved' and 'to be achieved' distance toward the optimum condition. The ideal condition to be achieved is defined as the HDI equal to 100. The higher the reduction in shortfall, the faster the HDI increases. This measure is based on the assumption that the growth of HDI is not linear. It is assumed to be diminishing as the HDI level is approaching the ideal point. The calculation of reduction shortfall is as follow:

$$r = \sqrt[n]{\frac{HDI_{(1+n)} - HDI_{(t)}}{HDI_{(ideal)} - HDI_{(t)}}} \times 100$$

where:

$HDI_{(t)}$ is HDI for the t^{th} year

$HDI_{(ideal)}$ is 100

n = year

The reduction shortfall could also be measured for each HDI component.

The Gender-related Development Index (GDI)

In principle, the GDI uses the same variables as the HDI. The difference is that the GDI adjust the average

achievement of each region in life expectancy, educational attainment and income in accordance with the disparity in achievement between women and men. The parameter ϵ is incorporated into the equation to take into account the inequality aversion that reflects the marginal elasticity of social valuation toward a certain achievement across gender. To express a moderate aversion to inequality, the parameter ϵ is set equal to 2.

To calculate GDI, one needs to first calculate the equally distributed equivalent achievement $[X_{ede}]$ using the following formula:

$$X_{ede} = (P_f X_f^{(1-\epsilon)} + P_m X_m^{(1-\epsilon)})^{1/(1-\epsilon)}$$

Where:

X_f : female achievement

X_m : male achievement

P_f : proportion of female population

P_m : proportion of male population

ϵ : inequality aversion parameter (=2)

The calculation of income distribution component is fairly complex. Based on wage data collected in the National Socio-Economic Survey (*SUSENAS*) 1999 and 2002, the calculation follows the steps below:

- 1) Calculating the ratio between wage for female and wage for male in non-agriculture sector $[W_r]$;
- 2) Calculating the average wage (W) using the following formula:

$$W = (Aec_f \times W_r) + (Aec_m \times 1)$$

Where:

Aec_f : proportion of women in the labour force (who are economically active)

Aec_m : proportion of male in the labour force (who are economically active)

W_r : ratio of female's wage in agriculture sector

- 3) Calculating the ratio between each gender group from the average wage above $[=R]$;

$$\text{For Female: } R_f = \frac{W_{f/m}}{W}$$

$$\text{For Male: } R_m = \frac{W_{m/m}}{W}$$

- 4) Calculating the income contributed by each gender group $[=IncC]$, where:

$$\text{For Female: } IncC_f = Aec_f \times R_f$$

$$\text{For Male: } IncC_m = Aec_m \times R_m$$

- 5) Calculating the proportion of income contributed by each gender group $[\% IncC]$ using the following formula:

$$\text{For Female: } \%IncC_f = IncC_f / P_f$$

$$\text{For Male: } \%IncC_m = IncC_m / P_m$$

- 6) Calculating

$$X_{ede\ Inc} = [(P_f)(\%IncC_f)^{(1-\Sigma)} + (P_m)(\%IncC_m)^{(1-\Sigma)}]^{\frac{1}{(1-\Sigma)}}$$

- 7) Calculating the index of income distribution $[=I_{Inc-dis}]$

$$I_{Inc-dis} = [(X_{ede}(Inc) \times PPP) - PPP_{min}] / [PPP_{max} - PPP_{min}]$$

The calculation of GDI follows the steps below:

- 1) Each index of the GDI component is computed using the formula described above with the maximum and minimum thresholds as stated in Table 4;
- 2) Calculating the X_{ede} from each index;
- 3) Calculating the GDI using the following formula:

$$GDI = 1/3 [(X_{ede(1)} + X_{ede(2)} + I_{Inc-dis})]$$

Where:

$X_{ede(1)}$: X_{ede} for life expectancy

$X_{ede(2)}$: X_{ede} for education

$I_{Inc-dis}$: Index of income distribution

Table 4

The maximum and minimum thresholds of GDI components

	Maximum		Minimum	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Life Expectancy	82.5	87.5	22.5	27.5
Literacy Rate	100.0	100.0	0.0	0.0
Mean Years of Schooling	15.0	15.0	0.0	0.0
Per capita Consumption	732,720		300,000	

Most data for computing GDI are from the same source as the data for computing HDI. Only wage data for computing GDI and Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) is from *SUSENAS* (National Socio-Economic Survey) 1999 and 2002

The Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM)

The GEM consists of three components: i.e. parliamentary representation, decision-making and income distribution. In calculating GEM one should first calculate the EDEP (the index of each component based on 'Equally Distributed Equivalent Percentage'). The calculation of income share for GEM is the same as the calculation of income share for GDI calculation described above. Then, the index of each component is the EDEP of each component divided by 50. 50 is considered to be an ideal share of each gender group for all GEM components.

The decision making component consist of two indicators: managerial and administration job, and professional and technical staff. For national figure, the index of decision-making is the average of the indices of these two indicators. This combination is necessary to

Calculating the GDI

As an example, the calculation of GDI for the province of DKI Jakarta 1999 is as follow:

Component	Female	Male
Proportion of population	0.502	0.498
Life expectancy (%)	73.2	69.3
Literacy rate (%)	96.8	98.9
Mean years of schooling (MYS)	9.0	10.4
Percentage of the economically active population (Proportion of Labor Force)	34.6	65.4
Non-agricultural wage (Rp)	376.858	393.183
PPP (Rp 000)	593.4	

Calculating life expectancy and educational indices

Life expectancy index:

• Female : $(73.2 - 27.5) / (87.5 - 27.5) = 0.76$

• Male : $(69.3 - 22.5) / (82.5 - 22.5) = 0.78$

If $\epsilon = 2$, then:

$X_{ede}(1) = [(0.502)(0.76)^{-1} + (0.498)(0.78)^{-1}]^{-1} = 0.77$

Literacy rate index:

• Female : $(96.8 - 0) / (100 - 0) = 0.968$

• Male : $(98.9 - 0) / (100 - 0) = 0.989$

Mean years of schooling index:

• Female : $(9.0 - 0) / (15 - 0) = 0.600$

• Male : $(10.4 - 0) / (15 - 0) = 0.693$

Educational attainment index:

• Female : $2/3 (0.968) + 1/3 (0.600) = 0.845$

• Male : $2/3 (0.989) + 1/3 (0.693) = 0.890$

If $\epsilon = 2$, then:

$X_{ede}(2) = [(0.502)(0.845)^{-1} + (0.498)(0.890)^{-1}]^{-1} = 0.87$

Calculating income distribution index Ratio to male non-agricultural wage:

• Female : $376.858/593.183 = 0.635$

• Male : 1

Average wage: $(0.346 \times 0.635) + (0.654 \times 1) = 0.874$

Ratio to average wage:

Female : $0.635 / 0.874 = 0.727$

Male : $1 / 0.874 = 1.144$

Share of earned income

Female : $0.727 \times 0.346 = 0.252$

Male : $1.144 \times 0.654 = 0.748$

Proportional income shares

Female : $0.252 / 0.502 = 0.501$

Male : $0.748 / 0.498 = 1.502$

If $\epsilon = 2$, then:

$X_{ede}(Inc) = [(0.502)(0.501)^{-1} + (0.498)(1.502)^{-1}]^{-1} = 0.75$

The income distribution index ($I_{Inc-dis}$) is

$I_{Inc-dis} = [(0.75 \times 593.4) - 360] / [737.72 - 300] = 0.194$

Gender Development Index

GDI = $(0.77 + 0.87 + 0.194) / 3 = 0.61 = 61\%$

Calculating the GEM

Using the case of Aceh province in 1999, the calculation of GEM is as follows:

Component	Female	Male
Proportion of population	0.499	0.501
Parliamentary Representation (%)	8.3	91.7
Proportion of manager, administration staff, professional and technical staff (%)	54.4	45.6
Percentage of the economically active population (Proportion of Labor Force)	38.4	61.6
Percentage of the economically active population (Proportion of Labor Force)	38.4	61.6
Non-agricultural wage	271.929	383.423
PPP (Rp 000)	562.8	

Calculating the parliamentary representation index and decision-making index with $\epsilon = 2$

Parliamentary representation index (I_{par})

$EDEP_{(par)} = [0.499(8.3)^{-1} + (0.501)(91.7)^{-1}]^{-1} = 15.25$

$I_{par} = 15.25 / 50 = 0.3$

Decision-making index (I_{DM})

$EDEP_{(DM)} = [0.499(54.4)^{-1} + (0.500)(45.6)^{-1}]^{-1} = 49.61$

$I_{DM} = 49.61/50 = 0.99$

Calculating income distribution index

Following the calculation of income distribution index for GDI above, the $I_{Inc-dis} = 0.27$

Gender empowerment measure:

**GEM = $1/3 (I_{par} + I_{DM} + I_{Inc-dis})$
= $(0.3 + 0.99 + 0.27) / 3 = 52.4$**

avoid any misperceptions of the respondents in choosing between these two occupational categories. Data for decision-making component is from SUSENAS 1999 and 2002. Data for parliamentary representation is from “Lembaga Pemilihan Umum” (General Election Institute) and the parliaments at provincial and regency/city level.

The GEM is calculated as:

$GEM = 1/3 [I_{par} + I_{DM} + I_{Inc-dis}]$

Where:

I_{par} : Parliamentary representation index

I_{DM} : Decision making index

$I_{Inc-dis}$: Income distribution index

The Human Poverty Index (HPI)

The HPI combines several dimensions of human poverty that are considered as the most basic indicators of human deprivation. It consists of three indicators: people expected not having a long live, deprivation on

educational attainment and inadequacy in access to basic services. The first indicator is measured by the probability of the population not expected to survive to age 40 (P_1). The calculation of this indicator follows the method of calculating life expectancy for HDI measurement. The second indicator is measured by adult illiteracy rate (P_2). This is calculated based on SUSENAS 1999 and SUSENAS 2002 data and covers population age 15 and above. While the limitation on access to basic services (P_3) consists of the following variables:

- Percentage of population without access to clean water ($=P_{31}$). P_{31} is defined as the percentage of household using water source other tap water, water pump and wheel that is located 10 meters or more from sewage disposal. This data is collected from SUSENAS 1999 and SUSENAS 2002.
- Percentage of population without access to health services ($=P_{32}$). P_{32} is defined as the percentage of population lives in the location 5 km or more from health facilities. This data is collected from SUSENAS 1999 and SUSENAS 2002.
- Percentage of children under five years old with low nutritional status ($=P_{33}$). P_{33} is defined as the percentage of children less than five years old belong to the category of low and medium nutritional status.

Calculating the HPI

As an illustration, the following equation shows the calculation of HDI for Aceh province in 1999:

Probability of people not expected to survive to age 40 - P_1 (%)	12.7
Adult illiteracy rate - P_2 (%)	6.9
Population without access to safe water - P_{31} (%)	61.5
Population without access to health services - P_{32} (%)	37.6
Undernourished children under age 5 - P_{33}	35.6

The composite of deprivation variables

$$P_3 = 1/3 (61.5 + 37.6 + 35.6) = 44.9$$

Human poverty index

$$HPI = [1/3 (12.7^3 + 6.9^3 + 44.9^3)]^{1/3} = 31.4$$

For this publication, the calculation of HPI follows the HDR 1997 published by UNDP:

$$HPI = [1/3 (P_1^3 + P_2^3 + P_3^3)]^{1/3}$$

$$\text{Where } P_3 = 1/3 (P_{31} + P_{32} + P_{33})$$

Procedures for estimating time required to reach particular targets

The time required to reach particular targets in several human development indicators, as presented in this report, is estimated by assuming that the past speed of improvement in those indicators as being constant in the future. The speed of improvement here indicates the absolute changes, as referred to a simple average of annual increase (or decline), expressed in years. By comparing data in 1993 (I_{93}), 1996 (I_{96}) and 1999 (I_{99}), 2002 (I_{02}), thus, the annual speed of improvement (s) is given as:

$$s = [(I_{96} - I_{93})/3 + (I_{99} - I_{96})/3 + (I_{02} - I_{99})/3]/3$$

Then, the estimated time (T) to reach particular target or goal in human development indicators (G) can be simply calculated as follows:

$$T = (G - I_{02})/s$$

Definitions of Statistical Terms

Access to health facilities: the percentage of households whose place of residence is less than five kilometres from a health facility (hospital, clinic, community health centre, doctor, nurse, trained midwife, paramedic, etc.).

Access to sanitation: the percentage of households who have either their own private toilet or access to public toilet facilities.

Access to safe water: the percentage of households who consume mineral water, tap water, or water from water pumps, protected wheels, or protected springs.

Average duration of illness: the average number of days of illness of those who are sick.

Births attended by modern health personnel : the percentage of children aged 0-4 whose birth was attended by modern medical personnel (doctor, nurse, trained midwife, paramedic, etc.).

Child mortality rate (IMR): number of babies that die before reaching one year of age per 1,000 live births.

Consumer price index: an index that indicates the level of price in a specified province or district relative to Jakarta's standard price (for province) or Jakarta Selatan's (for district). The index is calculated to standardise the rupiah value in a specified province or district. For details on this, see the technical note.

Economic growth: the relative change in the real value of gross domestic product over a certain time period.

Education index: one of the three components of the human development index. This is based on the enrolment ratio and the adult literacy rate. The index value is between 0 and 100. For details on how the index is calculated, see the technical note.

Enrolment. The *gross enrolment ratio* is the number of students enrolled at a given level of education, regardless of age, as a percentage of the official school-age population for that level. The *net enrolment ratio* is the number of children of official school-age enrolled in school as a percentage of the number of children of the official school-age population. The official school ages in Indonesia are 7-12 for primary school, 13-15 for junior high school, 16-18 for senior high school, and 19-24 for tertiary education.

Expenditure on food: the proportion of total expenditure used to buy food.

Expenditures on social service: estimation of the state expenditures on social service compared to the total state development expenditures on the public sector.

Expenditures on social service priority: estimation of the state expenditures on social service priority compared to the total state development expenditures on social service.

Expenditures on social service priority against the state expenditures: estimation of the state expenditures on social service priority compared to the total state development expenditures.

Gender empowerment measure (GEM): a composite index using variables constructed to measure the decision-making power of women in political and economic activities. The GEM is based on three indicators: the percentage of those elected to parliament who are women, the percentage of professionals, technicians, senior officials and managers who are women, and women's share of earned income. The index value is between 0 and 100.

Gender-related development index (GDI): a composite index using variables constructed to measure human development achievement taking into account gender disparity. The GDI components are the same as the HDI components but adjusted to capture the disparity in achievement between men and women. The index value is between 0 and 100.

Gross domestic product: the total amount of gross value-added (total output of goods and services) produced by all economic sectors in a country during a certain period of time.

Gross domestic product at constant prices: a calculation of gross domestic product using on prices in a specific base year.

Gross domestic product at current prices: the gross domestic product presented in current prices for the relevant year.

Gross domestic product per capita: the value of gross domestic product divided by total mid-year population.

Households with earth/dirt-floor house : the percentage of households whose houses have mainly earth or dirt floors.

Human development index (HDI) : a composite index based on three indicators: longevity, as measured by life expectancy at birth; educational attainment, as measured by a combination of adult literacy and mean years of schooling; and standard of living, as measured by per capita expenditure (PPP Rupiah). The index value is between 0 and 100.

Human poverty index (HPI): a composite index that measures deprivations in three dimensions: longevity, knowledge and standard of living.

Illiteracy rate (adult): the proportion of adults who cannot read or write in Latin script or other scripts.

Infant mortality rate (IMR) : the number of infants who die before reaching one year of age per 1,000 live births.

Labour force: the working age population (15 and over) who are employed or looking for employment.

Labour force participation rate: the proportion of the working-age population who are in the labour force.

Life expectancy at birth : the average number of years that newly-born infants would live if the mortality patterns at the time of birth prevailed throughout the children's lives.

Life expectancy index: one of the three components of the human development index. The value of this index is between 0 and 100. A detailed explanation on how to calculate this index is presented in the technical note.

Literacy rate (adult): the percentage of people aged 15 years or over who can read and write in Latin script or other scripts.

Mean years of schooling: the estimated average (mean) years of completed schooling for the total population aged 15 or over who have any status of educational attainment. For a detailed explanation see the technical note.

Morbidity rate: the proportion of the population who suffered from health problems that disturbed their daily activities over the previous month.

Malnourished children under five (Balita): referring to underweight children (suffering from malnutrition at medium or severe level). Medium malnutrition refers to percentage of children under five with weight below two deviation standards of the body weight media of the child

in that age. Severe malnutrition refers to percentage of children under five with weight below three deviation standards of the body weight media of the child in that age.

Non-agricultural wages: the average remuneration received by workers (labourers or official employees) in the non-agricultural sector.

Open unemployment: the proportion of the labour force who are seeking employment.

Poor people: the population with a monthly per capita expenditure less than a certain threshold referred to as the 'poverty line'.

Population not expected to survive to age 40: the estimated proportion of population that will die before reaching the age of 40.

Population with health problems: the proportion of the population that has had one or more health problems during the previous month.

Poverty line: the Indonesian rupiah value of the monthly per capita expenditure required to fulfil a minimum standard of food and non-food basic consumption.

Professionals, technical workers, senior officials and managers: defined according to "Klasifikasi Baku Jabatan Indonesia (KBJI)".

Public expenditures: estimation of the state expenditures on development particularly in the public sectors compared to the total state development expenditures.

Purchasing power parity (PPP): PPP rates allow a standard comparison of real price levels between provinces and districts, otherwise normal exchange rates may over- or under-value purchasing power as measured by adjusted real per capita consumption. At the PPP rate in the Indonesian context, one rupiah has the same purchasing power in each province as it has in Jakarta. The PPP is based on real per capita expenditure after adjusting for the consumer price index and decreasing marginal utility using Atkinson's formula.

Purchasing power index: one of three components of the human development index based on purchasing power parity (PPP) adjusted by Atkinson's formula. The index value is between 0 and 100. For details on how the index is calculated, see the technical note.

Self-medication: household efforts at self treatment for health problems using modern or traditional medicines, massage, or other traditional treatments.

School drop-out rate: the proportion of the population aged 7-15 who are not enrolled in education at any level and have not completed primary or junior high school.

School participation rate: the proportion of the population in a certain age group (7-12, 13-15, 16-18, and 19-24) who are attending school.

Total consumption: consumption of goods and services regardless of origin. This includes gifts and the household's own production. In this publication, total consumption refers to monthly consumption.

Underemployment: the proportion of the total labour force working fewer than normal working hours.

Undernourished children under five: also referred to as children underweight (suffering from moderate and severe malnutrition). Moderate malnutrition refers to the percentage of children under five who are below minus two standard deviations from the median weight for the age of the reference population. Severe malnutrition refers to the percentage of children under five who are below minus three standard deviations from the median weight for the age of the reference population.

Women's share of the labour force: the number of working women as a proportion of the total working age population (aged 15 and over).

Women's income share: the income contributed by women as a proportion of the total income of the population. For a detailed explanation on how to calculate this, see the technical note.

Women's representation in parliament: the proportion of parliamentary seats that are held by women.

Work force: the number of people within working age bracket having a job or is looking for a job. Working age population is the number of people at age 15 or above.

Work force participation rate: proportion of the population within working age bracket included in the work force.

Workers in the informal sector: the percentage of the labour force who are individual entrepreneurs, are working with the assistance of family members, or are paid or unpaid family workers.